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AN HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES
CURRICULUM IN NEWFOUNDLAND

by

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The undersigned certify that they have read,
and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for
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the Social Studies Curriculum in Newfoundland"
submitted by Linda Beverley Braine in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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ABSTRACT

A brief historical survey of the social, political, and economic history of Newfoundland contrasting the periods before and after Confederation is made in this thesis. Against this background is placed the development of education in the island with particular emphasis being given to the social studies curriculum.

The purpose of the study was to determine the effect on the social studies curriculum of Newfoundland's entry into Confederation. Major revisions of the social studies programme were made in 1936 and 1950 and a third is underway at the present time. The conclusions of this study are based on a comparison of the aims for education and the social studies courses as stated in 1935 and 1959 and a comparison of the topical outlines of course content since 1935.

The findings show that Canadian history first appeared in the curriculum in 1950. Canadian geography received new emphasis with a full course being instituted to replace its former position as a mere segment of a year's work. A study of the Canadian system of government was added to the civics course, but no major change was found in economics. These new courses and the redistribution of topics which has accompanied them have resulted in a new programme which is sharply contrasted to the preponderance of studies of Britain and Newfoundland which comprised the earlier curriculum.

The rise of prosperity which Confederation stimulated in the island and the keen interest in improving the educational system in the island are described in this study. Many of the consequent changes are

enumerated. However, no attempt is made to determine the effects of Confederation on the actual classroom procedures. The writer has limited the scope of the study to the curriculum prescribed by the Department of Education.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem. The purpose of this study is to trace the historical development of the social studies curriculum in Newfoundland with an attempt to determine what effect Newfoundland's entry into Confederation had on the curriculum.

Justification for the Study. There has been considerable activity during the past decade in the curriculum division of the Department of Education in Newfoundland. Committees have been appointed to "examine the present curriculum and make such recommendations as they consider necessary."¹ Most of these committees have completed their work and have submitted their reports. Many of their recommendations are now being incorporated in the school programmes. However, to the writer's knowledge, no studies have been made on the historical development of the curricula. Theses have been written on the history of education in Newfoundland which have dealt briefly with the curriculum but not intensively due to the scope of the topic with which the writers were working. However, Rowe remarked that "the development of the curriculum in Newfoundland schools" was a topic on which "detailed research could

¹Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, December, 1959.

be undertaken profitably."²

There has been very little research undertaken in the field of education in Newfoundland and the writer feels that more historical studies are needed to provide a basis for studies of current practices. Even though the curriculum is now in the process of revision, it is not, or should not be, static, and a study of this type should indicate what progress has been made to the present time.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Social Sciences. The social sciences consist of those branches of knowledge which are concerned with the life and activities of man in society. Although there is considerable debate about which subjects constitute the social sciences, those generally included are history, geography, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, economics, and political science. The social sciences differ from the physical sciences in content and the method used for research. Dealing with human beings, it is difficult, if not impossible, to isolate all the variables in a given case, and therefore the conclusions reached are not definitive. This is the main reason that some scholars think these subjects should not be called sciences. However, an attempt is made to study society in a logical, organized manner. For the purposes of this study the definition given by Wesley will apply.

²Rowe, Fred W., The History of Education in Newfoundland. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1952). p. 3.

The term social sciences will be applied to the scholarly materials about human beings and their interrelations....They are the results of research, investigation, or experimentation. They are written for adults. Thus the social sciences are concerned with the detailed, systematic, and logical study of human relationships.³

Social Studies. Although the term social studies is sometimes used interchangeably with social sciences, it will have the more common usage in this study and refer to those aspects of the social sciences which have been adapted for use in the schools. This knowledge may be presented as an integrated course in which the content is drawn from the various social sciences and woven into a single course. On the other hand, the social studies may be organized as separate disciplines as they generally are in Newfoundland. Here the social studies courses appear as history, geography, civics, and economics.

History. History, according to Good, is:

a systematically arranged written account of events affecting a nation, social group, institution, science, or art, usually including an attempted explanation of the relationships of the events and their significance.⁴

Formerly as a school subject it was taught as a mass of unquestionable facts which were to be memorized and the emphasis was on political and military events. However, the history being taught in the schools today has been expanded to include social, economic, scientific, and cultural aspects of the development of society. Although, unfortunately, in many

³Wesley, Edgar Bruce, Teaching the Social Studies (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942) p. 5.

⁴Good, Carter V., (ed.). Dictionary of Education. Second Edition. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959) p. 269.

classrooms today the textbook is still presented as the final authority, an attempt is being made by curriculum committees to emphasize the interpretative rather than just the descriptive side of history.

As Carson says:

We no longer have, if we ever did, a canonical body of knowledge to which we can point and say this is history and upon its validity historians agree.⁵

If our students are to receive a true understanding of history, they must be led to realize that historians are necessarily subjective in the material which they select for discussion and in their interpretation of that material. Until the present time, history has formed the core of the social studies. It has provided the material around which concepts from the other social sciences have been organized for presentation in the schools. Because of the growing emphasis on its fallibility, its status is being challenged, particularly by geography.

Geography. Geography is basically a study of the earth but it is no longer confined to a study of the earth forms. Scarfe wrote:

In all geography teaching it is impossible to proceed without first providing accurate, detailed, and really vivid descriptions in word and photograph of the typical and normal life of the majority of the people in any area, and then, secondly, some vivid and accurate information about the environmental conditions.⁶

⁵Carson, George Barr, Jr., "New Viewpoints in History," New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences, Twenty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. (Washington: The Society, 1958) p. 20.

⁶Scarfe, N. V., "A Viewpoint on the Teaching of Geography," cited in Geography Grades IX, X, XI. A Teaching Guide, Bulletin No. 3-A, 1959. (St. John's, Newfoundland: Division of Curriculum).

It is through its study of man's relation to his environment that geography holds an important position in the social sciences.

The traditional view of geography as a school subject was the memorization of countries with their capitals, names of rivers, and lists of products. Good's definition may be used to express the current opinion. He says that geography is

the science of the earth, including a study of land, water, air, the distribution of plant and animal life, man and his industries, and the interrelations of these factors.⁷

Economics. Economics as a school subject attempts to acquaint the students with the basic principles of our economic life which they as citizens will need in order to make intelligent decisions. Good defines it as

the branch of social study that deals with the production, distribution, and consumption of commodities having exchange value and with the social phenomena arising from such activities.⁸

Civics. The over-all objective of a course in Civics and Citizenship should be to prepare the student to make his greatest contribution to the smooth working of a Christian democratic society.⁹

Civics generally draws much of its material from political science. Wesley writes "[it] specializes in those relationships which result from official governmental control."¹⁰ The course outlined for the Newfoundland

⁷Good, op. cit., p. 247.

⁸Ibid., p. 190.

⁹Civics and Citizenship. Outline of a Civics and Citizenship Programme. Grades I to VIII. Bulletin No. 5-A. (St. John's: Division of Curriculum, 1960) p. 1.

¹⁰Wesley, op. cit., p. 4.

schools goes much beyond this to include many aspects of the life of a good citizen, including health and aesthetic appreciation. The course as outlined aims to foster the child's development as an individual, as a worker, and as a member of society.

Curriculum. For the purpose of this thesis the definition given by Good for the term curriculum program will be used:

in general, a concrete presentation of educational aims and points of view and scope and sequence of content, as incorporated in courses of study and other curriculum bulletins.¹¹

III. OVERVIEW

Chapter two provides a brief review of the geographic, economic, and political background of Newfoundland from the days when the island was considered important only as a base for the international fishery to the eve of Confederation.

The development of the educational system throughout the same period is the topic of chapter three. This chapter includes a discussion of the early efforts of foreign and local societies to provide some education for the inhabitants of the island, the beginning of state aid to education, and the establishment of the present denominational system.

Chapter four surveys the general changes in the educational system since Confederation.

The social studies programmes of the pre-Confederation and post-Confederation periods are compared in chapter five. The aims and

¹¹Good, op. cit., p. 152.

objectives of education generally, and more specifically the objectives in the teaching of social studies, are examined in the first part of the chapter. An attempt is made to identify changes which have taken place in the goals set for the schools. The changes which have taken place in the social studies curricula are examined in the second part of the chapter. Primary consideration has been given to the changing emphasis on particular areas of content.

A summary of the investigation and the conclusions which the writer has derived from it are found in chapter six.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION TO NEWFOUNDLAND

A. GEOGRAPHY

Situated as a sentinel at the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Newfoundland is the world's tenth largest island. It is shaped roughly in the form of an equilateral triangle, the sides of which are three hundred miles in length. The coastline, particularly on the eastern and southern sides of the island, is deeply indented with fiords and bays so that a trip around the island entering all of these bays would cover approximately six thousand miles. The area of the island is approximately 42,700 square miles, about twice the size of Nova Scotia.

Labrador, consisting of 110,000 square miles and possessing much potential wealth in minerals and hydro-electric power, also belongs to Newfoundland. This mainland territory is separated from the island by the narrow Strait of Belle Isle.

B. PRE-CONFEDERATION PERIOD

John Cabot is usually given credit for the discovery of Newfoundland in 1497 although nobody knows where he landed. However, fishermen from Western Europe apparently were familiar with the waters 'teeming with fish'; they had been fishing in the area for many years before Cabot appeared and they had even found land. The international fishery which may have been in existence in the fourteenth century expanded greatly after Cabot's voyage. Some of the fishermen were engaged in

fishing on the Grand Banks, far out from shore to the southeast of the island. They would preserve their fish by salting them heavily. Other fishermen devoted themselves to the inshore fishery. Their catch would be brought back to shore and dried in the sun. This method of preserving the fish required less salt than was used in the boats on the Grand Banks and salt was not always plentiful, particularly for the English.

Those participating in the inshore fishery built stages and flakes on shore for drying their fish and shacks in which they would store it. The majority of the fishermen returned to Europe for the winter but they usually left a few of their number behind to "cut timber, build cookhouses, boats, and fishing stages."¹ Another purpose for their wintering on the island was to protect their property from rivals who tarried in the fall or arrived early in the spring. By 1582 there were forty or fifty houses in St. John's built by these fishermen.

By 1600 the governments in Europe were determined to promote their Newfoundland fisheries. Not only were they concerned with the value of the cod, but they also believed that the voyage and the experience on the banks was excellent training for recruits for their navies.

The English, French, Dutch, Spanish and Portuguese were all involved in the Newfoundland fishery. The Portuguese left the scene after their homeland was captured by Spain in 1581 at which time their colonies in the New World changed hands as well. The Spanish claims were the next to weaken. An attack by the English on the Spaniards in Newfoundland in

¹Day, J. Wentworth, Newfoundland, The Fortress Isle. (Fredericton: Brunswick Press, 1960). Chapter II.

1585 dealt the latter a severe blow and three years later the defeat of the Armada disastrously weakened Spanish power at sea. Thereafter the English strengthened their hold on the east coast of the Avalon Peninsula, Conception Bay and Trinity Bay while the French dominated the rest of the coastal area. There was no treaty to make this division official, however. The Dutch were strengthening their power in the New World but although they plundered a number of the English settlements in Newfoundland in the seventeenth century, they never established a firm hold on the island.

In England there were two groups interested in the Newfoundland fishery. They had conflicting objectives and thus advocated opposing policies for the government to adopt with regard to the island. The London merchants wished to buy fish which they could then offer to the Spanish in return for wine. Consequently they favoured a policy of colonization. The inhabitants could supply them with the fish and at the same time could discourage rivals of other nationalities from using the same shores as the English. On the other hand, the West country merchants were interested in catching, not buying, fish, and they did not want any permanent settlers on the island who would rival them in selling the fish and claim the best sections of the shore line for building their fishing stages. They did not want permanent settlements discouraging other European buyers from coming to the Island for the more competition there was for the London merchants, the higher the prices the West Country fishermen could demand.

Permission was granted the London and Bristol Company to establish

colonies, but they did not have jurisdiction over the summer visitors. Consequently the settlers were attacked on numerous occasions by English fishermen and pirates who destroyed and plundered all their possessions.

In 1637 the first Act of Parliament forbidding settlement within six miles of the coast was passed. In spite of this and succeeding laws which discouraged any permanent settlement, the number of inhabitants of the island increased. Homes were built in isolated coves where they could not be detected from the open sea. Not until 1819 could the Islanders regard their homes as private property again.

Privileges granted to the French and Americans by means of various treaties were also obstacles to settlement in the island. In practice, the French had dominated the west coast but there was no treaty to authorize this. In 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht the French surrendered Port Royal and Plaisance (Placentia) but they retained the right to dry their fish in northern Newfoundland. In 1783 the French demanded the right to dry their fish on the entire coast from Cape St. John on the east to Cape Ray on the southwest, and Britain was forced to forbid settlement anywhere on this shore. Commenting on this point, G. O. Rothney wrote:

Thus the development of the western part of the island, containing the land most suitable for agriculture, which would have tended to turn Newfoundland towards the other British North American possessions, was delayed until France gave up her right to use the coast under the terms of the Entente cordiale of 1904.²

The first Western Charter of 1634 established the practice of rule

²Rothney, G. O., Newfoundland from International Fishery to Canadian Province. (Ottawa: Canadian Historical Association, 1959). Historical Booklet No. 10. p. 18.

by the Fishing Admirals. This meant that the captain of the first ship to enter a harbour in the spring was to be the Admiral of that harbour for the remainder of the season. Regardless of the capabilities or suitability of the individual, he could then exercise authority over any other ships that arrived as well as any inhabitants who were there already. The settlers usually lived in fear and dread of the Fishing Admirals who had the power to assign sections of the harbour to the crews that arrived later, settle disputes, and dispense justice. The punishments were usually fines, whipping, or imprisonment, and the people had no right to appeal his decisions. The Fishing Admirals were generally harsh on settlers who defied the law and built their homes near the shore. The usual method of dealing with such cases, of course, was to destroy their property.

The power of the Fishing Admirals gradually weakened after the appointment of the naval governors in the eighteenth century. In 1817 the first governor to remain on the island all year round was appointed. However, it was not until 1824 that Parliament recognized Newfoundland as a British colony. A council was appointed to advise the Governor and in 1832 permission was granted to establish representative government by electing a General Assembly. In 1855 responsible government was inaugurated.

Newfoundland was invited to send delegates to the Quebec Conference in 1864 where the possibilities of a federation of the British North American colonies was being discussed. Two representatives attended the Conference and returned to the island convinced that Newfoundland should

enter the new union. However, in the next general election, the Anti-Confederation Party was victorious. There were several factors in their favour. Newfoundland had more in common with Britain than with the North American colonies and the link with Britain had been strengthened by the laying of the trans-Atlantic cable in 1866 with its western terminus at Heart's Content in Trinity Bay. Newfoundland carried on very little trade with Canada but she traded extensively with other countries. A large percentage of the population in Newfoundland was of Irish descent and, remembering vividly the results of Ireland's union with Britain, they were strongly opposed to a political union for Newfoundland. Also, previous to the election, the leader of the Confederation Party announced his determination to cease the practice of giving free hand-outs to the able-bodied poor. With the prospect of starvation confronting them, naturally they supported the Anti-Confederation Party.

Failure to agree on financial terms led to the collapse of the federation talks which had been reopened between the Newfoundland and Canadian governments in 1895.

The Newfoundland economy received a great boost early in the twentieth century when two paper mills were constructed, one at Grand Falls and the other at Corner Brook. However, the economy of the country was far from sound. Newfoundlanders participated in the First World War on land and sea. The government undertook to support its troops overseas and attempted to pay off its debts after the war. As a result, it had to borrow heavily during the nineteen twenties and when the depression hit during the thirties, the whole structure collapsed.

In 1931, Newfoundland was one of the colonies to be granted dominion status by the Statute of Westminster. However, in view of the financial situation, she relinquished self-government in 1933 and a Commission, consisting of three Newfoundlanders and three British representatives, was established to govern the island and attempt to straighten out the economy.

The Commission of Government governed with a tight economy and gradually the situation improved.

With the coming of the Second World War the strategic importance of Newfoundland was recognized, and Canada and the United States both established military bases there. Immediately Newfoundland benefitted financially and before the war was over she was lending money to Britain, interest free. Emerging from the war in a healthy financial state, a decision was necessary on the type of government that Newfoundland would have in future. A National Convention was elected to survey the situation and recommend possible forms. Three possibilities were suggested: a continuation of Commission Government, a return to the independent status of 1933, or union with Canada. The first of these alternatives was dropped after the first national referendum. As a result of the second ballot, a decision was made in favour of union with Canada. Thus on March 31, 1949, Newfoundland officially became the tenth province of the Dominion of Canada.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND - PRE-CONFEDERATION PERIOD

A. SOCIETIES AND CHURCHES

The first school in Newfoundland of which there is any official record was opened around 1722 or 1723 in Bonavista. The records regarding this school and its founder are not clear, but the latter was an Anglican clergyman, the Rev. Henry Jones, who by 1726 was receiving assistance from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. This society had been organized in England and its main purpose was

the advancement of the true Protestant religion and farther spreading of the Gospel of Christ among those that yet remained there [in the English Colonies] in great and miserable blindness and ignorance.¹

In 1701 they received a Charter permitting them to proceed with their programme among the King's subjects overseas. Although religious instruction was their primary concern, the Society realized that their efforts would be severely limited as long as the people among whom they were working could neither read nor write. Consequently the establishment of schools also received attention. The overseas work of the Society was begun at New York around 1704 and their first missionary work in Newfoundland took the form of financial assistance to the naval captain

¹Rowe, Fred W., The History of Education in Newfoundland (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1952) p. 25, citing Lewis Anspack, A History of the Island of Newfoundland (London: Sherwood, Gilbert and Piper, 1827).

in St. John's during the first decade of the eighteenth century.

The second of the Society's schools on the Island was established at St. John's in 1744. Between 1766 and 1824 the Society established schools in over twenty settlements. Although this was a notable contribution to education in Newfoundland, it barely scratched the surface of the need that existed.

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, fear of the Fishing Admirals and the Naval Commanders caused the settlers to seek isolated coves near which to build their homes. They thus separated themselves from all civilizing influences. Missionaries travelling around the Island in the eighteenth century discovered people living in barbarous conditions. Intermarriage and poor diet had resulted in physical degeneration. Very few of the inhabitants could read or write. A number of settlements which were completely unknown to the authorities in St. John's were discovered by the missionaries. Sometimes they consisted of only two or three families. If one of the settlers could read even a little, he or she would probably have attempted to read the marriage, baptismal, and burial services as the occasion required but the majority had not seen a clergyman since coming to Newfoundland.

Not only in the isolated outports were people living in deplorable conditions. Sir Joseph Banks who visited Newfoundland in 1766 declared, "For dirt and filth of all kinds, St. John's may in my opinion reign unequalled."²

²Rothney, op. cit., p. 16.

There was no one on the Island during the winter with the authority to keep the peace. Consequently drunkenness, murder, and vices of all kinds reigned unchecked. Not until 1817 was a full-time Governor appointed. However, conditions in the outports varied greatly from one settlement to another, largely depending on the character of the original settlers.

The establishment of churches and schools frequently coincided but the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel was hampered in its work by a scarcity of personnel. The records of the Society do not give the complete figures for each year but they probably did not have more than fifteen schoolmasters on the Island at any one time. Newfoundland, of course, was only one centre of the mission which was spread over much of North America. However, G. A. Frecker commenting on the lack of workers wrote,

. . .it was very closely associated with the Church of England, and teachers wishing to be licensed by the S. P. G. had to present certificates testifying, among other things, to their conformity to the doctrine and discipline of the Church of England. It will readily be appreciated that such a condition created difficulties for both Roman Catholics and Nonconformists.³

In 1843 the Society discontinued its endeavours in the field of education. Its efforts had been valuable for it awakened in others an awareness of the need that existed. Some individuals who attended the Society's schools were in turn able to teach other members of their families and neighbours.

Several local societies were organized for the furthering of

³Frecker, G. A., Education in the Atlantic Provinces. Quance Lectures. (Toronto: W. J. Gage & Co., 1956) p. 42.

education among the poor of the population. The St. John's Charity School Society had its beginnings between 1802 and 1804. It was a combined effort of the Roman Catholics and Protestants to ease the miseries of the poor, especially the widows and the sick. Originally provision was made for two schools--one Protestant and one Roman Catholic--but this denominational division was not continued. In 1809 it was reported that 378 girls and 247 boys had registered at the school from the time that it had been established.⁴

The Benevolent Irish Society was another organization originally formed along nondenominational lines. Its primary purpose was to assist the poor and sick among the Irish population. In 1826 it entered the educational field and the following year the 'orphan asylum school' was opened.

As most of the Irish population in Newfoundland were Roman Catholic, so were the majority of the pupils but the Society would not permit them to receive religious instruction in the school. After 1833 the school was used solely for boys when the girls were removed and placed in the care of the Presentation Nuns. The school became a truly Catholic institution in 1847.

The Newfoundland School Society originated in England under the instigation of Samuel Codner who had been involved in trading with Newfoundland. The aim of this society was to provide free instruction for the poor of all denominations in the colony. Their first school was

⁴Rowe, Fred W., The History of Education in Newfoundland. (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1952), p. 33.

established in St. John's in 1823. Within three years five others were organized in other parts of the island, but, because of a lack of funds, the Society was unable to fill the many requests for schools.

Extreme poverty was a factor which definitely limited school attendance. Thus the Society collected clothing in England and sent it out to the colony. Consequently, a few more children were able to attend school, but once again the need was far from met.

As was the custom in schools established by the other societies, instruction was not confined to week-days. Many of the boys and girls were needed at home during the week to help with the fish and other work. Thus Sunday Schools were established for these children where they would receive instruction in reading as well as religion. Evening classes were held for adults.

In spite of the Society's claims to be undenominational, it required that its teachers profess the faith of the Church of England. By the Act of 1874, the money paid by the legislature to the Society was to be deducted from the Church of England grant. The denominational bias within the Society was a topic much discussed by those of other faiths throughout the entire period of its operations. In 1923 the Society ceased its activities in Newfoundland after a century of service.

In summing up the contribution made by the Newfoundland School Society Rowe wrote:

Observers of all denominations have never failed to pay tribute to the contributions made to Newfoundland education by the Society. It made a genuine attempt to give educational facilities to the masses; for the period, its school buildings were of high quality; its teachers were comparatively well trained, and very carefully selected; if the Society had a denominational bias, this was not allowed to

interfere with its attempts to give an education to children of all faiths; the opposition it received from various quarters and the somewhat niggardly and ungracious treatment given by the Newfoundland Government did not sour its outlook, and in a final act of generosity its schools and dwellings were passed over to the Church of England to be used to educate the children of Newfoundland.⁵

B. PRIVATE SCHOOLS

The four societies that have just been mentioned were concerned with providing education for the poorer classes of society. They made no provision for the children of middle and upper class families. Not only were these societies not concerned with the children from wealthier homes, but this section of society soon placed a stigma on the acceptance of the "charity" of free education. It became a mark of "respectability" for parents to provide private instruction for their children. Thus these children were either sent abroad for their schooling, usually to England or the United States, they were given private tuition at home, or they were enrolled in the local private schools.

During the first half of the nineteenth century, a number of private schools were in existence in the larger settlements in Newfoundland. Their curricula were quite varied and it is interesting to note how many of them emphasized utilitarian rather than classical subjects. The advertisements which appeared in the Royal Gazette, Newfoundland's first newspaper which was issued in 1807, give some indication of the courses offered. The following excerpts are taken from Rowe's account.⁶

⁵Rowe, op. cit., p. 49.

⁶Ibid., pp. 50 - 60.

A Mrs. McCawley opened "a school for young ladies who would be instructed in reading, writing, English grammar, and needlework."

Mr. Greene offered:

reading, writing, arithmetic ('with all its various branches'), English grammar, geography, and navigation as well as 'his strictest attention to the moral and decorous behaviour of the pupils committed to his care'.

Around 1817 the opening of a new school by Jermiah McCarthy was announced. The scholars were to receive instruction in

Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, English Grammar, Six Books of Euclid's Elements; together with the eleventh and twelfth Books of Solid's Mensuration, seventy-five problems of Algebra, and Navigation.

Richard W. Coyle had a school in which he instructed youth "in the various Branches, necessary for their respective situations in business."

At the same time Mrs. Coyle instructed a few young ladies in

Reading, English Grammar, and Geography; plain and Fancy Works - Drawing in its different branches of Figure, Landscape and Ornament, including Velvet Painting; Painting and Etching on Glass, etc. etc.

The private schools filled a definite need until the government made grants available for education and the denominational colleges were established which could provide wider course offerings and better facilities.

C. GOVERNMENT PARTICIPATION

The first move of the Newfoundland Legislature to participate in education was made in 1836. A grant of £2,100 was provided which was used to assist organizations that were already involved in educational work, and to provide sums to encourage boards which were to be appointed

by the government to establish and maintain schools in their districts.

The building of schools and payment of teachers' salaries was not considered to be the responsibility of the state, but the contributions made by the government steadily increased until 1916 when it assumed the major financial responsibility.

The earliest grants were very small and woefully inadequate but some of the boards were not even using what was available. The Education Act was amended in 1838 and one stipulation was that "any money left over from the grants to the Conception Bay and Trinity Bay boards was to be 'appropriated for school houses'."⁷

In 1843 it was decreed that all students pay four shillings four pence to augment the salary of the teacher. In 1852 the law was changed. Instead of a uniform fee for all, the fees were levied according to the subjects that the pupil was taking.

In 1858 a grant of £750 was established for the training of teachers. A program was then organized whereby a teacher could train for varying lengths of time and be awarded a certificate at the end signifying the extent of this training. However, it was not until 1887 that there was any differentiation in salary. At this time the holders of certificates were recognized in monetary terms. The annual bonuses were twenty dollars for the first grade, twelve dollars for second grade, and six dollars for third grade.

A large increase in the amount of the educational grant was given in 1920 and at this time the establishment of a normal school was

⁷Ibid., p. 62.

authorized. A Department of Education was also created at this time.

By 1930 the grant had reached one million dollars and much of the increase had been devoted to teacher's salaries. It was decreased by half during the depression, but by 1936 it had returned to its previous high.

The efforts of the Commission of Government in the field of education were devoted primarily to curriculum reform, extension of supervision, and the setting up of auxiliary services. In 1943 they made education free and compulsory for all children between the ages of seven and fourteen, but because of the scattered nature of the population, this was difficult to enforce.

In the fiscal year which ended March 31, 1949, the education grant had risen to four million one hundred thousand dollars. Provisions for education in the province had improved tremendously in the course of the century but much remained to be done. A. B. Perlin writing about education in Newfoundland as the province approached the threshold of Confederation stated:

Per caput expenditure was only about \$11 and costs were high because of the very large number of classrooms that had to be maintained in a country of 1,300 communities. The census of 1945 had indicated that more than 30,000 persons in the Island were unable to read or write. . . . Of just above 2,200 teachers in the last year of Commission Government, although the median salary had risen from \$483 in 1940 to about \$930 in 1948, about 60 per cent were receiving salaries ranging from \$500 to \$1,000 and school enrolment was, at 75 per cent, the lowest of any Canadian province.⁸

Confederation was to usher in a new era.

⁸ Perlin, A. B., The Story of Newfoundland (St. John's: Guardian, Ltd., n.d.) p. 76.

D. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE DENOMINATIONAL SYSTEM

Newfoundland differs from the other provinces of Canada in that its educational system is established along denominational lines. However, it was not the wish of the government to create such a system. The 1836 Amendment to the Education Act gave permission for clergymen to visit the schools but not to give any religious instruction or interfere with the administration of the school in any way. Another stipulation made at this time was that the textbooks to be used in the schools were not to have any religious bias whatsoever.

Much controversy resulted from these provisions. So much so, in fact, that in 1843 the grant was divided between Roman Catholics and Protestants. Schools already in existence were to be administered by the Board of the denomination which had the majority in the community. The denominational groups were not broken down within the Protestant population but it was stipulated that the majority of the members on the Protestant boards were to be from the same denomination as the majority of the Protestants in the district.

An attempt to establish a non-denominational academy in St. John's was a failure largely because of opposition from the Anglican and Roman Catholic leaders; in fact the Anglicans, aware of the government's plans, set up their own academy just prior to this move. About 1851 or 1852 three denominational academies were formed to replace the non-denominational one. About the same time the Protestant boards in St. John's and Conception Bay were given permission to divide on denominational lines "provided that teachers salaries were not reduced

below £30 a year by any changes that might be made."⁹ However, it was later decreed that no student could be forced to take religious instruction if the parent or guardian objected.

Not all the people were in favour of dividing the Protestant grant. Objections were raised by both Anglicans and Methodists. The Roman Catholics were not directly involved, of course, and thus they were merely interested spectators. The main objection centered around the provision of educational facilities. At this time they were generally very poor, and in many cases they were non-existent. Many people argued that splitting the grant would only make the situation worse. Where one school existed, two or three could rise and call upon the people for support. Some services would be duplicated and thus money would be used which was badly needed for other things. One item which would probably be sacrificed was teachers' salaries and they were already at a bare subsistence level. Other people were disturbed by the prospect of the widening gulf which would almost inevitably appear between the various Protestant groups. However, the majority of the populace probably viewed the whole issue with indifference, being concerned only that some form of education be provided for their children. Nevertheless, the religious leaders on the island were very influential; most of the chairmen of the school boards were clergymen and they had very strong feelings on the matter.

The result of all this was the Act of 1874 which authorized the division of the grant between Roman Catholics and Protestants, equal in

⁹Rowe, F. W., op. cit., p. 82.

proportion to their population. The Protestant grant was then to be subdivided among the several Protestant denominations according to population. Two Protestant inspectors--one Church of England and the other Wesleyan--were appointed to replace the one-man Protestant representation provided in 1858, and they were to visit the other Protestant schools alternately. In 1876 three denominational superintendents were appointed who were to serve as both administrators and inspectors.

Those in favour of the denominational system argued that it was desirable and feasible because of the geographical distribution of the population according to their religious faith. This was particularly true in the division of Roman Catholics and Protestants. The various Protestant groups were not settled quite so homogeneously but many of the smaller communities had, and still have, a preponderance of Anglicans or Wesleyans.¹⁰ This meant, of course, that the duplication of facilities which was feared would not materialize in many instances. Another factor contributing to the division was the bitterness which existed between the Anglicans and the Wesleyans in their religious activities and outlook. As far as the schools were concerned, the Wesleyans believed that religious instruction was very important but that arrangements could be made for its continuation, even if it involved time after the regular school day. The Anglicans were unwilling to make such a compromise. Their policy was to resist any attempt to organize state schools if

¹⁰ The Wesleyans, or Methodists, joined the Presbyterians and Congregationalists in 1925 to form The United Church of Canada.

financial advantages and centralization were the only motives.

In 1892 the Salvation Army was recognized as a separate denomination and in time it also developed its own schools.

The denominational academies, or 'colleges' as they were later called, were an important feature of the educational system. There were three main ones established in St. John's: The Church of England Academy which became Bishop Feild College, the Catholic Academy which became St. Bonaventure's College, and the Wesleyan Academy which was later called the Methodist College and then Prince of Wales College. These colleges were officially recognized in 1876 and provision was made for the establishment of separate boards for each which would be distinct from the regular district boards. They served as day schools for the pupils from St. John's and as boarding schools for pupils from the outports. They were established primarily as secondary schools but they extended their offerings down to include elementary classes as well. More elaborate curricula were offered, better facilities were provided and more qualified teachers were procured than were available in the regular schools. To maintain these standards, the colleges charged higher fees than did the other schools to supplement the grant which they received from the government. The fee scale prohibited the children of the poorer classes of society from receiving the benefit of these facilities.

There was evidently concern for the low standards of education being maintained in other schools in the colony. Special grants were made available in 1853 for the establishment of 'Commercial' schools. It was hoped that this would foster the procurement of better qualified

teachers by making higher salaries available, and that in turn the curriculum offered by these schools would be more advanced and enriched. These hopes did not materialize, however, and in 1866 legislation was passed giving permission to the government to apply the Commercial School grants to the board schools upon receiving an application from a board. It was further declared in 1874 that a 'superior education' might be offered in any school provided that the board could raise enough funds to pay an 'efficient master'. Such a board had permission to charge higher fees for this 'advanced work'. According to Rowe,

in practice a superior school came to mean one where there were two or more teachers, and a certain proportion of the pupils were in what we would regard as high school grades.¹¹

E. CO-OPERATIVE EFFORTS

The history of education in Newfoundland prior to Confederation, however, has not been entirely that of increasing segregation. Some co-operative efforts should also be noted.

About 1895 the Council of Higher Education was organized for the purpose of establishing a system of common examinations for grades six to twelve in all schools. The C. H. E., as it was soon popularly known, also established the curriculum for the grades to be examined. This system was enthusiastically received and proved to be a great impetus to education in the province. Before this there was no uniformity in the curricula except what the individual denominations decided to impose. Regardless of the arguments currently being levelled against the system

¹¹ Rowe, op. cit., p. 102.

of public examinations, it must be recognized that the institution of these examinations helped greatly in bringing a semblance of order out of chaos in the curriculum, they proved to be an incentive for pupils to stay in school at least until they had written the first of the C. H. E. examinations, and they also gave the teachers an incentive for raising their standards of teaching because a teacher's success came to be evaluated by the number of successful candidates he or she had in the examinations.

During the early years of the existence of the Council of Higher Education, the examinations were set and marked in England. Later this task was undertaken in Newfoundland with the exception of the examinations for grade eleven. In 1930 the Common Examining Board of the Maritime Provinces and Newfoundland was organized. This was made possible by financial assistance from the Carnegie Corporation. The members of this Board retained control of their own curriculum and set their own examinations. Then each sent its quota of representatives to Nova Scotia where the papers were marked. This arrangement applied only to the grade eleven papers from Newfoundland. Grade twelve, or the Senior Associate as it was called, was dropped from the school programme in 1931. The Examining Board is still functioning although the name has been changed to the Atlantic Provinces Examining Board.

Another sign of a co-operative movement was the Act of 1903 which authorized

the establishment of amalgamated schools in sparsely populated areas where the number of children will not warrant the establishment

of separate schools.¹²

The various groups were permitted to give religious instruction in the school after school hours. Few Boards took advantage of this Act in the early years of its existence but there has been more of a trend in this direction in the last few years.

Newfoundland's first Department of Education was created in 1920 and a Minister of Education with a seat in the Cabinet was appointed. The Department, which was responsible to the Minister, consisted of an advisory board made up of the deputy ministers, the several superintendents, and representatives of the teachers' association and of all the denominations. The purpose of this Department was to regulate the training and certification of teachers and to serve in an advisory capacity for the setting of the school curriculum.

Previous to this each denomination had been responsible for training its own teachers. All efforts in this line during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries consisted of academic work at the high school level. At the same time the student teacher would have an opportunity to observe and assist the 'master', and gain some experience in teaching.

The first government contribution to the training of teachers was made in 1853. The sum was increased and the terms of its bestowal were made more explicit in 1858. It was to be used for the 'board, lodging, and training' of students who came in to one of the training centres in St. John's. The number of candidates was limited to two from each

¹²Ibid. p. 89.

electoral district. This last stipulation did not prove to be workable, however, and was changed by the Act of 1876. Thereafter, candidates were to be selected "in such a manner that each district could 'participate fairly' in the grant."¹³

When the responsibility for the training of teachers was relegated to the new Department of Education in 1920, a nondenominational normal school was organized. This was the first attempt to establish a professional institution for teacher training that was completely separate from the regular schools.

In 1925 it was agreed to establish a university college on non-denominational lines as a memorial to those Newfoundlanders who had sacrificed their lives in the First World War. This was another project which the Carnegie Corporation helped to finance. Two years in Arts and Science were offered after which the graduates were admitted to the third year of the full four-year course at Dalhousie, Toronto, McGill, Columbia, or Harvard Universities. The number and variety of the courses offered increased until in 1949 the following were included:

two years in Arts and Science, two years in Pre-Medical and Pre-Dental work, three years in Engineering, two years in Household Science, and three years in Education.¹⁴

The Normal School was closed in 1932 because of the colony's financial difficulties. In 1934 the responsibility for the training of teachers was assumed by the Memorial University College which offered a

¹³Rowe, F. W., op. cit., p. 110.

¹⁴Rowe, F. W., The Development of Education in Newfoundland. (Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1964) p. 180.

one-year course.

The work of the Department in the area of curriculum was highlighted by the appointment of a Curriculum Commission in 1933. Upon its recommendation a Curriculum Committee was appointed consisting of the Secretary of Education, two superintendents of education, the principals of the city colleges, the principals of two of the largest city schools, the Professor of Education at Memorial University College, and three grade teachers. There were also corresponding members from large centres, such as Grand Falls, Corner Brook, and other important places outside St. John's.¹⁵ As a result of the work of this Committee, the curriculum underwent a major revision. The revised curriculum was copied from Nova Scotia and adapted for use in the Newfoundland elementary schools. This had little effect on the secondary school curriculum which was still the responsibility of the Council of Higher Education.¹⁶ Nevertheless, there was a general revision of the curriculum for all grades in 1936.

Some early attempts at adult education were advanced by the societies involved in education when they sponsored reading classes for adults. However, the adult education movement in Newfoundland expanded greatly and entered many and varied fields under the leadership of the Memorial University College. Evening classes as well as day classes in the homes were conducted. Home industries such as knitting, sewing, and cooking,

¹⁵Burke, V. P., "Education in Newfoundland." The Book of Newfoundland, J. R. Smallwood (ed.). (St. John's: Newfoundland Book Publishers, Ltd., 1937). Vol. I, p. 294.

¹⁶Tucker, Otto George, "The Origin and Development of Regional and Central High Schools in The Province of Newfoundland." (Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Alberta, 1963). p. 19.

classes for seamen and mechanics, reading circles, lectures and radio broadcasts, and travelling libraries soon boosted the morale of many people in the small scattered communities. Activity in this field has been growing ever since.

SUMMARY

Educational activity in Newfoundland received its impetus from the various societies both local and British in origin which were interested in helping the poor people on the Island. Fear of persecution and dependence on the fishery were forces contributing to the scattered nature of the population. The isolation and insecurity of their existence resulted in almost barbarous conditions in many sections of the island. Fighting such obstacles, the societies could make little headway. It was not until 1824 that the British Parliament recognized Newfoundland as a British colony. Eight years later representative government was established and the first government aid to education was granted in 1836.

Although the societies administering the schools had definite religious affiliations, the government wished to establish a nondenominational system of education. However, the opposition was too strong and finally the education grants were divided among the Roman Catholic, Anglican and Methodist Churches for the administration of their separate schools. Since then the right to establish denominational schools has been extended to the Salvation Army and Pentecostal Assemblies.

To prevent utter chaos, however, efforts were made to give a degree of unity to the system. The Council of Higher Education was organized to arrange for external examinations in grades six to twelve. Later this was reduced to grades nine, ten, and eleven. The Council also arranged a uniform curriculum for the grades involved in the examinations. Permission was granted for the establishment of amalgamated schools in areas where the population was too small to support schools on denomina-

tional lines. The Department of Education which was created in 1920 also fostered co-operation among the denominations. The teacher training program was the responsibility of the Department. First the Normal School and later the Memorial University College was organized on non-denominational lines. A Curriculum Committee was appointed by the Department in the 1930's and as a result of the work of this Committee, there was a major revision of the elementary school curriculum.

The history of education in Newfoundland up to 1949 is a story of slow but generally steady improvement. It experienced two or three major setbacks due to the unstable financial position of the colony, but on the eve of Confederation prospects were brighter. The whole history of the island centred around a struggle against poverty and against the environment--the long, rugged, deeply-indented coastline, the rocky terrain that resisted any attempts at extensive cultivation, the vast expanses of muskeg and heavy forest.

The rigid economic measures imposed on the population by the Commission of Government and the surge of activity resulting from the Second World War had restored the solvency of the country's treasury. By 1947 - 1948 there were 1198 schools on the Island and 2231 teachers. There were nineteen Supervisors and the average number of teachers per Supervisor was 117. The median salary for teachers had risen from \$487 in 1941 to \$981 in 1947 - 1948. Of the 2231 teachers, 120 were receiving over \$1800 a year. Much of this rise in salary, however, was counter-balanced by the rising cost of living. Thus in spite of notable improvements, there was still much to be done.

Rowe, writing in 1952, said:

The real enemies to an efficient education system in Newfoundland appear to be the same as existed a century ago - isolation, small villages and hamlets, dependence on a precarious occupation, and the general poverty of the Province.¹⁶

He suggested that one solution to some of these problems would be a system of regional high schools but because of the lack of roads, they would have to be boarding schools. The initial cost of building them would be prohibitive to the government, and once built they would be too expensive for the students.

Nevertheless, Newfoundland was on the threshold of a new era. Although many people were bitter over the relinquishing of the island's sovereignty, many others were awaiting Confederation with hope and expectation, anticipating the development of Newfoundland's great potential as she became the tenth province.

¹⁶Rowe, The History of Education in Newfoundland, op. cit., p. 140.

CHAPTER IV

POST-CONFEDERATION PERIOD

A. NEW PROBLEMS AND INCREASING PROSPERITY

In twelve years the student body in Newfoundland had increased from 70,000 to 130,000. In the past four years we've spent more on education than in all our previous history. This is an explosion--a revolution in education.¹

These were the words of Premier Smallwood on the occasion of the opening of the new Memorial University campus in 1961. Those twelve years had seen a rapid improvement in the financial standing of the province and each year a higher percentage of the government's expenditure was directed toward education.

The same period saw an exceptional growth in population which is primarily attributed to a natural increase. This taxed the existing schools and increasing requests for assistance were made to the government by school boards wishing to expand their facilities. Some communities were also affected by the government's efforts to relocate some of the small isolated settlements, particularly those on the small, off-shore islands. The Provincial Government offered substantial assistance if all the families in one of these communities expressed a desire to move. The inhabitants would then be moved to a nearby settlement on the mainland. This shifting of the population resulted in an overcrowding of the schools in a number of these settlements.

¹"St. John's Salutes It's New Campus." Evening Telegram, St. John's, Newfoundland. December 2, 1961.

The education authorities were concerned about the need for more classroom space even before Confederation. The school population took a sudden jump after the Compulsory School Attendance Act was passed in 1943. In spite of this increase, the average daily attendance in 1947 - 48 was only seventy-six per cent of the enrolment. This was lower than that of any Canadian province. It was difficult if not impossible in some cases to enforce the legislation. The lack of roads hampered inspection by the officials in large sections of the island. Many families claimed they were too poor to clothe their children properly for school.

However, with Confederation came the social security benefits which all Canadians enjoyed such as Family Allowances, Old Age Pensions, and Unemployment Insurance. The Family Allowance Payments would be withheld if the children did not have satisfactory school attendance. Many parents suddenly had an important motive for ensuring their children's regular attendance. By 1958 the average daily attendance of those enrolled had exceeded ninety per cent.

Although the goal of educating the masses appeared to be nearing realization, the problem of overcrowded classrooms was accentuated. A policy of centralization was recommended to the Commission of Government by Frecker in 1948. However, at that time political changes were in the offing and thus no move was made to act on the recommendation immediately. One discouraging factor was the prohibitive cost. Rowe's comment on this has already been cited.²

²Vide, Chapter III, p. 36.

However, Newfoundland's economy received a tremendous boost from Confederation. Besides the regular payments made by the Federal Government to the provinces, the newest member received a Transitional Grant for eight years. This was to compensate for the loss of Newfoundland's customs and excise duties as well as other sources of revenue. During that time a new survey was to be made to determine the province's financial need. The province was also permitted to keep the surplus revenue amounting to forty million dollars that had been accumulated by the Commission of Government.

Upon assuming office, the new Government under the leadership of Premier Joseph Smallwood immediately swung into action. Mistakes were made as they tried to bring their ambitions for Newfoundland into realization. Nevertheless, they had the determination and courage to launch new ventures and give them an opportunity to prove their worth. Not all were successful, but Newfoundland has benefitted in the long run. A more diversified economy developed. Statistics for 1957 show that the forest industries headed the list for net value in commodity production. Construction was second and mining third. Fishing was fourth but it was far below the other three.³

The Federal Government made a number of other grants for special projects. Communications were high on the priority list. John Black reported in 1964 that "since 1949, 600 settlements previously in isolation

³Warren, Phillip J., "Financing Education in Newfoundland." (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Alberta, 1962), p. 103.

as far as roads were concerned have been linked to the highways."⁴ These roads included sections of the 563 miles of Trans-Canada Highway. The Newfoundland Government was unable to finance the remainder of its share of the agreement, so in 1963 the Federal Government agreed to pay ninety per cent of the cost of the remaining construction. Still the item receiving the largest slice of the provincial budget is the roads.

Black stated:

The government estimates the \$47 million total for the coming year is more than all previous governments spent on roads and bridges for the entire period of Newfoundland's history down to the day of Confederation.⁵

The Newfoundland Railway was taken over by the Canadian National Railways following Confederation and by 1960 the C. N. R. had spent eighty-three million dollars on equipment and improvements.

The Federal Government also assumed responsibility for the maintenance of lighthouses, dock, and harbour development schemes.

All of these improvements and the many others which Newfoundland has witnessed in the past fifteen years probably would have come in time if the island had retained its independence. However, it would have been a long slow process.

B. CENTRALIZATION

The field of education received many benefits from the foregoing developments. In 1953 the Government formulated its policy regarding the

⁴Black, John. "Newfoundland." The Financial Post, Toronto. June 20, 1964. p. 56.

⁵Ibid.

centralization of high schools and voted a sum of five hundred thousand dollars per year for the following five years for the construction of regional high schools. The earliest centralized schools were built in areas served by roads. The great road building activity in this decade was very beneficial to the school centralization movement. Between 1953 and 1961, twenty-three central high schools, consisting of grades not below grade six, and twenty-one regional high schools, consisting of grades not below grade eight, were established.

The original advocates of high school centralization in Newfoundland envisaged a system that would include a diversification of courses to meet the pre-vocational needs of the pupils. However, the lack of facilities, funds, and personnel has resulted in the continuation of traditional courses only in most schools. Some variation was introduced in the large urban areas.

Another aim of the centralization movement was to attract better qualified teachers to the high schools. Tucker, in his study of the central and regional high schools, says he was "unable to find any specific new attractions offered by school boards to entice principals and staffs to the centralized high schools."⁶ Nevertheless, the location of the schools in cities and larger towns, the larger staffs which provided an opportunity for some degree of specialization, financial bonuses for principals and vice principals, and the opportunity to work in new buildings with modern facilities tended to attract university trained teachers and administrators.

⁶Tucker, op. cit., p. 67.

There were some weaknesses developing from this system, however. It tended to place the emphasis on high schools at the expense of elementary schools. Also some of the larger all-grade schools were reduced to one or two rooms after the withdrawal of the high school grades. Duplication of services in some areas developed as a result of the denominational system or community insularity. However, provision for the continuation of the denominational system of education was written into the British North America Act in 1949 so it is not likely to be changed in the near future.

The pre-vocational needs of pupils which were of concern to the educators when the centralization scheme was initiated are now being met outside of these schools. In 1961 the government announced its intention to construct twelve new vocational schools on the island and a College of Trades and Technology in St. John's at a total cost of \$20,400,000. of which the Federal Government had promised to contribute seventy-five per cent. At that time there was only one vocational school in Newfoundland, situated in St. John's. Boarding allowances were provided for those who came from other parts of the island. As this is the first year of operation for some of the new schools and administrators are still seeking staffs for others, no assessment can be made of the success of the venture or its influence on the educational scene.

C. MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

While the centralized schools are attempting to attract better qualified teachers, the number of such individuals in the province is

increasing. In 1949 the Memorial University College was raised to the status of a degree-conferring university. Before this date, any students wishing to complete their degrees were forced to leave the island, and once having left, many failed to return. In 1950 four Bachelor of Arts degrees and one Bachelor of Arts, Education degree were conferred by the new university. Since then it has expanded rapidly and at the 1964 Convocation over two hundred degrees were conferred. It soon outgrew the original building and in 1961 an entirely new campus was opened. This precipitated a sudden rise in the enrolment.

Since 1949 the university's enrolment has increased from 329 to over 3,000 in 1964. The increase hasn't been regular, and the effects of the new Elizabeth Avenue campus, opened in October, 1961, are strikingly evident in these figures; enrolment 1960 - 1961: 1,400; 1962 - 63: approximately 2,000; 1963 - 1964: 3,000.⁷

Much the largest faculty at Memorial is that of Education. In 1946 an attempt was made to combine the professional and academic courses which formed the basis for the Bachelor of Arts (Education), a regular four-year course and one of the first degree courses offered at the new university. More recently a Bachelor of Education degree has been offered to those who completed a degree in Arts or Science and then did a year of professional study. This new programme was introduced in 1959 - 60 and is designed for high school teachers who wish to specialize in one or two subject areas. The four year course has been retained and now a student teacher may elect to follow the primary, elementary or high school route. This programme for high school teachers "is intended to

⁷News Item in The Evening Telegram, St. John's, April 25, 1964.
p. 4.

meet the needs of teachers in all-grade schools where there is no subject teaching. It is sometimes referred to as a 'generalist' course."⁸

In order to cope with the rapidly increasing student body, the faculty has increased also. Its membership has grown from 25 in 1949 to 138⁹ in 1963 - 64.

The University has participated actively in adult education and in-service training for teachers. Courses are offered during the summer and in the evening during the winter for any who wish to pursue their education apart from the regular academic year. Members of the faculty also present some courses on television. A course in oral French, for example, has been very popular. A number of workshops for teachers have been conducted at various centres on the island for which members of the University staff have co-operated with the local branches of the Newfoundland Teachers' Association.

D. TEACHERS

The percentage of uncertificated teachers in the Newfoundland schools is a matter of great concern. For a study undertaken in the spring of 1959, Junior Matriculation plus one year of teacher training was considered the rock-bottom criterion for the 'qualified' teacher.¹⁰

⁸"The Need for Planned Teacher Recruitment," Department of Education Newsletter, 15(February, 1964).

⁹News Item in the Evening Telegram, St. John's, June 27, 1964, p. 4.

¹⁰The Problem of the Unqualified Teacher in Newfoundland Schools N.T.A. Info-Search Bulletin, No. 2, September, 1960. pp. 10 - 11.

At that time of a total teaching population of 3805, there were an estimated 1783 unqualified teachers in Newfoundland, or approximately forty-six per cent of the teaching force. Of these approximately six hundred were emergency supply teachers, individuals who have no teacher training and in many cases do not even have grade eleven standing. The emergency supply teachers were not considered in the study but of the remainder twenty per cent said that they intended to improve their standing by attending summer school and thirty per cent said they planned to go to university. Among the factors listed as deterrents to the furtherance of education were academic shortcomings, financial difficulties, and fear of failure at university.¹¹

The government has undertaken to help alleviate the financial obstacles and provide some incentive for the attainment of higher teaching grades by making grants available for education students and by raising the salaries. As was stated in the previous chapter, the median salary was \$980 a year in 1948 while one hundred twenty out of twenty-two hundred teachers were receiving over \$1800 a year. By 1958 the average salary had risen to \$2,480 but it was kept low by the large number of ungraded teachers still in service. According to the latest salary scale introduced in 1963 and retroactive to September 1962, a teacher with First Grade, which indicates Junior Matriculation and one year of training, receives a starting salary of \$2400 and reaches a maximum of \$3204 by five yearly increments. In 1950 a new grade was established for salary purposes which was for teachers with a university

¹¹The Problem of the Unqualified Teacher in Newfoundland Schools, op. cit., pp. 36 - 37.

degree. The new salary scale provides four grades for university graduates, and the salary ranges from a low of \$3696 to a maximum of \$5700 by ten increments for a teacher with one degree, to a low \$5196 reaching a maximum of \$7800 by thirteen increments for a person with a doctorate. Each year finds more and more teachers trying to raise their professional standing. The number of uncertificated teachers in the schools is lessening but they cannot be eliminated until there are enough qualified people to fill the positions.

E. STUDENT BURSARIES

While the Provincial Government is encouraging the organization and constuction of centralized high schools, it is still concerned about deserving students in areas which do not have the benefit of these better facilities. Rowe said in January, 1958,

We must recognize this simple fact that the average child in the one-room schools of Newfoundland today is sentenced to semi-illiteracy unless drastic and radical steps are taken to provide some means of giving a high school education to the pupils now in these schools.¹²

He also said that of 2,810 children who were in the second grade in one-room schools nine years before, only four matriculated. This was the number of matriculants from 536 one-room schools. He estimated that the chance of a child in a one-room school to achieve matriculation was one-sixth of one per cent.¹³

¹²Perlin, A.B., The Story of Newfoundland (St. John's, Newfoundland: Guardian Ltd., n.d.) p. 79, citing F.W. Rowe.

¹³Ibid.

Thus a major scholarship programme was instituted to assist promising students from one and two room schools to attend larger schools. Perlin wrote,

500 bursaries have been established, varying in value from \$125 to \$500 to enable students in small and remote schools to acquire matriculation status in the nearest suitable schools where this is attainable. The grand total of scholarships and bursaries now provided by government is 1,247 with an estimated annual cost of \$524,000. Thus, in monetary terms, more was to be spent in the 1958 - 59 school year to assist talented students than was provided in 1932 for the whole cost of provincial education.¹⁴

More recently an outline of progress in the educational system since Confederation was given by Finance Minister E.S. Spencer in the Budget Speech to the Newfoundland House of Assembly. Concerning financial assistance to students he said:

In the year before Confederation there were 5 or 6 scholarships that the Government awarded each year. We increased that rapidly to 38 in the first year of Confederation. . .to just over 1,200 scholarships and bursaries awarded last year alone. We will give another 1,250 of them in the present year. We have awarded a grand total of over 8,000 such scholarships and bursaries since Confederation. In the same period of time before Confederation the number was approximately 50.¹⁵

F. ORGANIZATION FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Providing the physical facilities and financial assistance for pupils to attend school, and staffing the classrooms with teachers is not the end of the problem. Someone has to decide what is to be taught in those classrooms, what knowledge is of most worth. As a result of

¹⁴Perlin, The Story of Newfoundland (St. John's, Newfoundland: Guardian, Ltd., n.d.) p. 79.

¹⁵"The Budget Speech." Reported in the Evening Telegram, St. John's, May 20, 1964. p. 28.

all the activity to compel the children to attend school and the sudden rise in the attendance, the calibre of the average student has changed. Not only do the educators have to realize the changing needs of these students, but there is also the problem of keeping up with the explosion of knowledge and the changing world perspective.

The organization which controls the curriculum for the Newfoundland schools is headed by the Council of Education which consists of the Minister of Education, the Deputy Minister of Education, and the denominational superintendents. This body was organized in 1939 to act as a liaison between the denominational bodies and the government for formulating educational policy. In 1956 an Advisory Education Committee was established which was

responsible directly to the Minister of Education for matters concerning education below the university level, and communicating directly with the University on educational matters at the university level.¹⁶

This Committee consists of thirty representatives appointed for five years from such organized bodies as the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, the Newfoundland Federation of Labour, the engineering profession, the Institute of Chartered Accountants, the Newfoundland Board of Trade, Memorial University, the Department of Education, the Home and School Associations, and the Medical and Dental Associations.¹⁷

The task of this Committee was to supplement the work of the Council of Education by giving advice on educational policy and

¹⁶ Canadian Education Association Newsletter, No. 110. March, 1956.

¹⁷ Ibid.

administration. There is a Division of Curriculum within the Department of Education and the Director of this Division is the Executive Secretary of the Advisory Committee on Education and the Secretary to the Sub-Committees on Curriculum.¹⁸

The Sub-Committee on Curriculum was set up by the Advisory Committee to evolve an overall philosophy and a statement of aims for education in Newfoundland. This was presented under the title, "The Nature and Function of Education." The Sub-Committee then appointed three-member committees for each subject area. According to the statement in the Department of Education Newsletter,

It was emphasized that these small selected committees were set up for one specific purpose, namely: To state a philosophy and specific aims for each subject area which should carry one step further the meaning and spirit of the original document entitled, "The Nature and Function of Education."¹⁹

In a later publication it was stated that the Subject Area Committees were to examine the present curriculum and make such recommendations as they considered necessary.²⁰ As a result of the recommendations made by these committees, many new courses are already in use while others are gradually being introduced.

¹⁸Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, December, 1959.

¹⁹Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, November, 1957.

²⁰Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, December, 1959.

G. SUMMARY

The post-Confederation period in Newfoundland has been one of progress. The island has been better off financially than ever before in its history. The introduction of new industries has provided a more diversified economy. Financial assistance from the Federal Government has brought new social security payments for the people, and it has broken down the isolation of hundreds of communities by the construction of roads.

Classrooms were seriously overcrowded as a result of a rapid population increase, the relocation of isolated communities, and the incentive to maintain satisfactory school attendance by the assurance of Family Allowances. However, the rising prosperity of the province and the recognition by the government of the importance of education has alleviated much of this by the construction of centralized high schools. The primary purpose of the centralization policy is to provide an opportunity for Newfoundland students to receive a better education by making better facilities available which in turn, it is hoped, will attract better qualified teachers.

A series of vocational schools is being constructed which will cater to the needs of non-academically talented students.

There is still a large number of unqualified teachers in the Newfoundland schools but the government is trying to alleviate this situation by raising the salaries of teachers in an attempt to make the remuneration for well-qualified teachers sufficiently attractive to spur those in the low brackets to improve their professional status. It is

also hoped that the new salaries will encourage talented individuals to stay in the profession. Grants are also provided to assist teachers who wish to return to university to raise their qualifications.

Memorial College was raised to the status of a university in 1949. Since then the student body has grown from 329 to over 3,000. By far the largest faculty is that of Education and it is expanding rapidly both in the number of staff and in the courses offered. The University has participated actively in the field of Adult Education, not only in St. John's but throughout the island. All this activity has resulted in a rapidly increasing number of people who are vitally concerned with education in the province.

Not only have the physical facilities been improved, but the content and quality of education being presented in the classroom has also been scrutinized. Representatives of various public organizations are now serving on the Advisory Education Committee which gives advice on policy and administration. Small groups were appointed to examine the aims and content of the various subject areas of the curriculum. As a result, the curriculum is in the process of undergoing a major revision.

Certainly there is much activity in the field of education in Newfoundland. A large proportion of the people seem to be acutely aware of the importance of education. The government is now devoting eighteen per cent of its budget to this one phase of life in the province. It is still too early to generalize on the long range effects of these changes, but the prospects are looking increasingly brighter for the next generation of young Newfoundlanders.

CHAPTER V

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN NEWFOUNDLAND

A. CURRICULA IN THE SCHOOLS BEFORE 1936

The early missionaries who came to Newfoundland soon realized that their efforts to impart a knowledge of the Scriptures to the inhabitants of the Island were severely hampered by the inability of the people to read. Consequently the earliest schools concentrated on reading, writing, and spelling. Gradually other subjects were added, generally of a practical nature.

Although each school or society could determine its own courses, it is interesting to note similarities. The 'orphan asylum' established in St. John's in 1826 by the Benevolent Irish Society offered navigation, bookkeeping, English grammar, arithmetic, reading, writing and spelling.¹ These were subjects commonly found among others in the various curricula. The reliance of the people upon the sea for their livelihood and for transportation is indicated by the inclusion of navigation in the school programme. Other schools added astronomy as well.

The earliest of the social studies courses of which the writer has found evidence is geography which would also be an important branch of

¹Rowe, F.W., The History of Education in Newfoundland (Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1952) p. 35.

study for navigators. A Mr. Greene included geography in the curriculum for the private school which he established in St. John's in 1807.² Geography was also considered a suitable course of study for young ladies; in 1817, Mrs. Richard Coyle offered instruction in it along with the more feminine pursuits of needlework and painting.³ The Rev. James Sabine was willing to give private tuition in Geography, Use of Globes, Map Drawing, and Natural Philosophy with Apparatus.⁴ The St. John's Academy offered a more classical education. Included in its programme were the Latin and Greek classics, French, English Grammar, and History.⁵

The Act of 1853 indicates the concern of the authorities for the low standards of many of the schools on the island. The legislature made financial assistance available for the establishment of "Commercial" schools which it was hoped would engage better qualified teachers and raise the standard of the courses taught. An attempt was made to create some uniformity in the curricula of these schools by requiring that they include Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar, and where required Geography, History, and Navigation, and also such Industrial Employment as may be directed and deemed necessary by the Boards.⁶

The outline of the curriculum for the Newfoundland Wesleyan Academy provides more detail than the others do. Geography was included in the

²Ibid., p. 57.

³Ibid., p. 59.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid., p. 58.

⁶Ibid., p. 101.

Third and Second classes of the Primary Department while the First class had the History of England as well. The Intermediate Department included the use of Globes, Histories of Greece and Rome, and Natural History in its programme.⁷

The Act of 1876 outlined a course of study for a three-year period of teacher training. History and Geography were included in this syllabus. The first year students were to have an elementary knowledge of geography, including definitions. Their history was to go as far as the Norman Conquest. The geography designated for the third year students was to comprise a study of Newfoundland and the Dominion of Canada. The history included the period "from A. D. 1820 to the present with review."⁸

It will be recalled that teacher training at this time consisted of the academic high school subjects plus some experience in conducting classes. However, it is interesting to see what these prospective teachers were required to know. In this regard, the writer thinks it is worth including some examination questions on history and geography asked of these first and third year students.

Examination for Pupil Teacher Candidates⁹

Geography. 1. Define an Island, isthmus, lake promontory, continent. 2. Name 5 great oceans, and 5 continents. 3. In what countries and in what continents are the following places - Paris, New York, Dublin, Alexandria?

⁷Ibid., p. 99.

⁸Ibid., p. 112.

⁹Ibid.

History. 1. What several nations occupied Britain before the Norman Conquest? 2. Write any account you can of Alfred the Great or Canute.

Third Year

Geography. 1. Describe the Coast of Newfoundland and enumerate its chief bays. 2. Draw a Map of Canada, placing on it the Capitals of the several Provinces. 3. British Columbia. Write all you can about this Province, or that of Manitoba. 4. What are the following places celebrated for? - Quebec, Louisburg, Placentia, Bett's Cove, Ferryland, Hopedale.

History. 1. What effect had the Wars of the Roses on England? 2. Give a list of the Kings of England with dates from A. D. 1700 to 1820. 3. Narrate the circumstances which led to the declaration of the American War of Independence. 4. Give an account of the Continental War during the early part of this Century.

Until 1931, the history taught in the schools was almost exclusively British and Newfoundland. An exception was in the Associate grade where in 1907 a choice was given of Ancient or English history. In 1917 this was changed to Newfoundland and British history again. In 1922, the Associate grade was divided into Junior Associate (grade eleven) and Senior Associate (grade twelve). The Junior Associate continued the Newfoundland and British history while the Senior Associate had a choice of British or Ancient and European. In 1927 this was extended to three choices: British, or Ancient, or Roman, 264 B. C. - 14 A. D. In 1930 the three choices were Civilization to 476 A. D., Civilization 476 - 1920, or British history. The Senior Associate was discontinued after 1932.

In 1931 - 32 some variation was introduced with World History being prescribed for the Primary grade, Ancient History in the Preliminary division, World History again for the Intermediate grades, and Modern European for the Junior Associate. These courses were then generally

given in alternate years until 1936 with the British and Newfoundland History comprising the courses in the in-between years. As each of these grades or divisions encompassed two years' work, the students would encounter all of these courses.

Somewhat more variety was offered in the geography courses throughout the same period although the emphasis was still on Newfoundland and the British Empire. North America and Europe were included in the Associate programme which continued as Junior Associate after 1921. Geography was not prescribed for the Senior Associate.

A few excerpts from the syllabus outlined in the Education Act of 1917 will serve to illustrate the emphasis placed on local conditions and the continuing influence of religion on the geography and history programmes.

Primer

History: The telling of carefully selected folk-lore and fairy stories. The simplest of the Old Testament stories are most interesting to children as well as inspiring and uplifting.¹⁰

. . . .

Standard 2

Geography: Home Geography including local surroundings and industries. Facts relating to surface, soil and productions. Definitions of common physical features of water and land. Begin to keep a weather chart and record.¹¹

History: Any stories that can be connected with the history

¹⁰Education Act, 1917. St. John's, Newfoundland. p. 51.

¹¹Ibid., p. 54.

of the locality. Pioneers of the settlements, traditions. The coming of John Cabot. The early fishermen and their ways.¹²

Standard 3

History: Telling and reading stories of discovery and explorations. Review of John Cabot and the early fishermen of Newfoundland. Add Sir Humphrey Gilbert and John Guy. Stories connected with Judea and Egypt.¹³

Standard 4

Geography: Study climate conditions of Newfoundland and the effect of the climate on the seasons, the character of the people, the habits of the animals, and the vegetation of the country. The natural features of Newfoundland (deal with the principal ones only). Mariners compass (32 points). Learning the meaning of marks and signs on navigation charts.¹⁴

One important factor which is stressed by curriculum builders is that education should begin where the child is by discussing things that are familiar to him. Gradually his outlook should expand until it becomes world-wide.

The social studies curriculum for the Newfoundland schools in the early twentieth century began with the child's environment but didn't get much beyond that and never did become fully world-wide in scope. However, the world situation was changing. The realization of the interdependence of nations was spreading, and advances in technology were breaking down isolation. At the same time the concept of education was changing and the curriculum was about to undergo a major revision. In fact the curriculum underwent two major revisions; the first was in 1936 and the

¹²Ibid., p. 55.

¹³Ibid., p. 57.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 59.

second in 1950. A third is now in progress but the changes are being introduced much more gradually than was the case in the other two instances.

These new programmes will now be examined and a comparison will be made of the aims of education in general and the various social studies in particular as well as a comparison of the course content.

B. THE AIMS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION FOR NEWFOUNDLAND

Two statements have been issued by the Department of Education presenting the aims of education for the province. The first was compiled in 1935 and is entitled Handbook to the Course of Study - Introduction to the Curriculum. The second is the Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland. It was published as Bulletin No. 2-A from the Division of Curriculum in 1959.

The fundamental aim of education as stated in the 1935 publication was to give "each child the fullest preparation for participation in adult life consistent with the abilities he may possess."¹⁵ In 1959 it was said,

Education is the process by which a human being is enabled to achieve his fullest and best development both as a private individual and as a member of human society.¹⁶

These amount to essentially the same thing for the earlier presentation, lest it be interpreted too narrowly, was sub-divided as

¹⁵ Handbook to the Course of Study. Introduction to the Curriculum. (St. John's, Newfoundland: Department of Education, 1935) p. 1.

¹⁶ Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland, Bulletin No. 2-A, 1959. Division of Curriculum, Department of Education, St. John's, Newfoundland.

follows:

- I. The social aim: to train the pupil for effective participation in adult group activities.
- II. The avocational aim: to train the pupil for the fullest enjoyment of leisure time.
- III. The vocational aim: to train the pupil for participation in productive labour.¹⁷

The most obvious difference is the religious foundation pervading the later publication. It was written:

We believe that his [the human being's] best and fullest development can be achieved only in a Christian democratic society, and that the aims of education, both general and specific, must be conceived in harmony with such a belief.

We believe that one who has achieved his fullest and best development as an individual is one who, to the best of his ability, (a) is possessed of a religious faith as maintained and taught by the church of his affiliation; (b) is possessed of a sense of moral values, based on a belief in and an earnest endeavour to practice and exemplify in his daily living, the virtues, both spiritual and moral affirmed by his religious faith.¹⁸

Emotional, intellectual and cultural attributes were added to this before it was summarized that this individual

is one in whom these attributes and acquirements. . .are harmonized and related in an all-round personality, whose "growth in wisdom and stature" is accompanied by "growth in favour with God and man."¹⁹

The 1935 edition scarcely mentioned religion. In the course of the outline it recommended the percentage of the pupils' time that should be devoted to each subject and then stated that time for religious instruction should be arranged in addition to that prescribed for the

¹⁸Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland. op. cit.

¹⁹Ibid.

other subjects.

Following an outline of the philosophy of education accepted by the Department of Education in 1959, fourteen general objectives were listed for education in the Newfoundland schools.²⁰

1. To help pupils understand the Christian principles and guide them in the practice of these principles in their daily living.

This religious emphasis was not present in the 1935 statement.

2. To help pupils to develop moral values which will serve as a guide to living.

The 1935 edition stated the importance of developing the "fundamental qualities of. . .character."

3. To acquaint pupils with the principles of democracy and to provide opportunities for the practice of these principles.

Activities that will develop effective citizenship were important in the curriculum of 1935.

- 4 & 5. To help pupils mature mentally and emotionally.

These were not specified in 1935.

6. To ensure that all pupils master the fundamental skills of learning to the limit of their abilities.

The earlier version gave the "mastery of the fundamental subjects - the tools of learning" - as one of the aims of the elementary course.

7. To provide opportunities for the development of pupils' abilities to think critically.

²⁰The following fourteen objectives are cited as they appeared in the Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland, Bulletin No. 2-A, 1959. Each is followed by the writer's commentary indicating the similarities and differences between these objectives and those listed in the Handbook to the Course of Study: Introduction to the Curriculum, 1935.

This idea is not found in the earlier statement.

8. To help pupils to understand, appreciate and benefit from what is good and valuable in history, literature, science, and the arts.

The aims for elementary education envisaged in 1935 included laying the foundation for "aesthetic appreciation through instruction in art, handwork, music, and literature," and also to provide a background for "an appreciation of the physical world through elementary instruction in Social Studies and Natural Science".

9. To help pupils make the best use of their leisure time.

"To train the pupil for the fullest enjoyment of leisure time" was the earlier version.

10. To help pupils understand the human body and practice the principles of good health.

Again one aim of elementary education in 1935 was "to establish effective and permanent health habits through daily instruction and practice."

11. To help pupils appreciate their privileges and responsibilities as members of their families and the wider community and so live in harmony with others.

The social aim of the 1935 curriculum was "to train the pupil for effective participation in adult group activities." Activities which will develop qualities for worthy home membership are also indicated as an important aspect of education.

12. To give pupils guidance in the choice of a career and to provide opportunities to begin preparation for occupational life.

This corresponds to the vocational aim of 1935. It was stated that the curriculum, if possible, should offer training in the student's chosen field. In connection with the high school course it was written, "while it is at present impossible to provide for all alternative courses, there

are three groups for which provision can be made - (1) those who intend to proceed to University; (2) those who wish to complete their general education without any reference to higher education; and (3) those who wish some introduction in vocational education in the form of courses in Commerce, Industrial Arts, and Household Arts."

13. To encourage pupils to strive for high standards in their work and to develop an appreciation and respect for the work of others.

The earlier aims did not include this idea.

14. To seek out and develop pupils' special talents and to assist them in developing their strengths and in overcoming or adjusting to handicaps and weaknesses.

The 1935 edition claimed that "the curriculum should provide materials and activities which will guide the children toward the life for which they are best fitted."²¹

From this examination it is apparent that by far the majority of the objectives of education have not changed. They have been rearranged and reworded but fundamentally the goal is the same. Nevertheless, there are some differences. As was stated earlier, the religious foundation of the educational system is given new emphasis in the latest publication as are mental and emotional maturity and critical thinking. The emphasis on high standards of work and respect for the work of others

²¹The foregoing information has been a comparison of the aims and objectives for education in Newfoundland as stated in the Aims of Public Education for Newfoundland, Bulletin No. 2A, 1959, and the Handbook to the Course of Study. Introduction to the Curriculum, 1935. All quotes have been taken from these two sources.

is also an innovation.

It was stated explicitly in 1935 that the 'Three R's', while fundamental to education, "act only as background to the real education of the child." Although not stated directly, this is implicit in the new report of educational philosophy as well.

Whereas the aims enumerated in the latest report apply generally to the complete educational system, it should be noted that a distinction is drawn between elementary and secondary education in the earlier publication. The mastery of the fundamental subjects, the laying of a foundation for aesthetic appreciation, the provision of a background for effective citizenship and for an appreciation of the physical world, and the establishment of effective and permanent health habits are singled out as specific purposes of the elementary school. The pursuance of academic knowledge and, where possible, vocational education are the primary objectives of the high school.

With this view of education in general as a background, the aims and objectives for the teaching of the social studies will be examined.

C. THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES FOR TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

In Newfoundland the name "social studies" is given to a general course in grades one to four, and to the history, geography, and civics courses in the upper grades. Economics is added in grade eleven.

None of the social studies courses is compulsory for a general education in the Newfoundland high schools. History, however, is required for matriculation and consequently most students take it each year.

Geography and economics are taken by a much smaller percentage of the school population. Until recently these latter two were both matriculation credits but this is no longer true.

In the introduction to the 1935 curriculum guide for grades one and two social studies, it is stated,

The work of these grades cannot be exactly classed as either history or geography; it is really an approach to these subjects as well as to civics.²²

The purpose of these courses was to help the pupils gain some knowledge of the world, to arouse an appreciation of the common things of everyday life, to stimulate thinking and creativity, to foster pride in a project successfully completed and to encourage the pupils to live actively rather than passively.

The Tiegs-Adams Social Studies Series²³ was introduced in grades one and two in 1950 and in grade three in 1952. These texts are used together with the series written by Hannah and Hoyt.²⁴ No statement has been issued by the Department of Education regarding these courses so the statement of objectives must be that given in the Teachers' Manual which accompanies the series.

There are four major objectives listed for the Tiegs-Adams Series.

1. Acquiring and using the abilities and skills essential in intelligent co-operative participation in group activities,

²²Handbook to the Course of Studies. Social Studies. (St. John's, Newfoundland: Department of Education, 1955). p. 3.

²³Vide Appendix A. Nos. 30, 32, 33.

²⁴Vide Appendix A. Nos. 14, 15, 16.

carrying individual as well as group (civic) activities.

2. Building and using concepts, insights, and understandings which are important in carrying on daily activities at increasing levels of maturity.
3. Developing and using the desirable ideals, attitudes, and skills which are essential in good human relations.
4. Acquiring and using critical thinking and problem solving skills.²⁵

In each case the emphasis is placed upon the actual use of these skills rather than the mere acquisition of them.

While stated in general terms here, these objectives are translated into more specific aims for each learning experience. However, the authors of this series realize that skills in them selves are not enough and that they must be based upon accurate knowledge. This is also provided in the series.

The aims for the 1936 curriculum would also fall within the scope of the above objectives. Some additions have been made in the new programme.

History and geography were taught as separate subjects in grades three and four until 1950 and therefore they will be included in the discussion of these courses. In the present programme grades three and four have a social studies programme with the same general objectives as those stated above.

²⁵Teachers' Manual for Stories About Linda and Lee. Revised Edition. (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1960).

D. THE AIMS FOR TEACHING HISTORY

History courses for grades three to eleven were specified in the 1935 curriculum. The objectives were to foster intelligent loyalty and intelligent citizenship, to build attitudes that would lead to international good will, and to present truth realizing that the classroom presentation could easily be the basis upon which adult judgements would be made in later years.²⁶

When the History Curriculum Committee presented its report in 1961, seventeen objectives for the teaching of history were listed as a basis for the new curriculum which they recommended. These are much more specific than the previous group but most of them will fit into the same categories.

The building of attitudes is a major part of this programme. The emphasis on world consciousness and the attempt to overcome prejudice and foster international good will are obvious in the following aims:

To realize that cultural, moral, political, scientific, and economic advance has not been the prerogative of any one state or people but rather the culmination of the strivings of all humanity.

To realize the continued interdependence of all peoples of the world.

To realize the development of cultural interests that embrace, not only our own nation but every nation of the world.

To realize the innate dignity of the individual.

²⁶ Handbook to the Course of Studies: Social Studies, Department of Education. St. John's (Long Brothers, 1940) p. 98. Unrevised Since 1935.

To develop the Christian principle of love for one's neighbours all over the world.²⁷

Closely associated with the first group in an attempt to counteract prejudice is the aim to inculcate a spirit of objectivity and the ability to distinguish fact from opinion. In the words of the Committee these objectives are:

To give training that will permit the distinction between misleading propaganda and fact.

To develop a spirit of tolerance that will permit the free discussion of controversial issues.

To develop accuracy of comprehension and expression.

To ensure that history shall not be perverted to serve the purpose of indoctrination.²⁸

Again associated with this group but going one step further, is the aim

To develop abilities necessary for impartial investigation leading to constructive judgements and decisions about social affairs.²⁹

To understand the nature of society is important for intelligent citizenship and thus the following aims are given for the history course:

To realize that society is dynamic.

To understand the high cost of the advance of civilization and thus to attain the highest ideals and high concepts of loyalty to one's self and one's fellows.

To realize the part law and government play in the ordering of society.

²⁷Report of the Sub-Committee on History. n. d., mimeographed, supplied by H. J. B. Gough, Director of Curriculum.

²⁸Ibid.

²⁹Ibid.

To develop a respect for authority.³⁰

One of the primary purposes for teaching history is to foster an understanding of the present through a study of the past. Thus two objectives for the history courses in the schools are:

To accumulate a knowledge of the past widely chosen to explain the existence and function of present day institutions;

and

To develop historical-mindedness; that is the ability to see the present from various vantage points in the past.³¹

This is the only group that is not specifically mentioned in the 1935 syllabus.

It is evident from this review that the spirit behind the two sets of objectives is very similar. The major difference is that the more recent Committee has been more specific in the wording of these aims.

E. THE AIMS FOR TEACHING GEOGRAPHY

Within the last few years the status of geography as a school subject has risen considerably in Canada. Geographers, pointing out the value of their subject, claim that it is sufficiently important to become the core of the social studies, a position traditionally held by history.

However, the success of the geographers in the other parts of Canada has not been reflected in Newfoundland. Once a matriculation credit for grade eleven students, the subject has been deprived of this distinction

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Ibid.

within the last four years.

In spite of this 'fall from grace', an examination of the aims of geography teaching reveals a number of objectives similar to those listed for the history curriculum. As was found with the history, a comparison of the aims listed by the curriculum committee in 1935 with those published in 1959 reveals much that is similar. The wording is different and the earlier list enumerated eight objectives while the more recent publication contains five. However, the essence is the same.

"To help the pupils to become acquainted with other peoples and other lands"³² was one of the objectives in 1935. In the later version, 'acquaintance' is changed to 'interest in' and the idea is expressed that this should follow from a study of the students' homeland.

According to the 1959 curriculum guide, a study of geography should . . . train pupils to use their minds to establish orderly correlation of natural phenomena and distributions, to observe nature, to develop their critical faculties, and to use their imagination.³³

In a similar vein although in more general terms, the 1935 list of objectives said the pupils should develop

a sympathetic and intelligent understanding of the problems and difficulties of the nations of the world,

and they should

develop an ability to use accurate understanding of the relationships between man and his environment in solving everyday problems.³⁴

³²Handbook to the Course of Studies: Social Studies, op. cit., p. 9.

³³"The Nature and Function of Geography." Geography Grades IX, X, XI. A Teaching Guide. Bulletin No. 3-A, 1959. Division of Curriculum, Department of Education, St. John's, Newfoundland.

³⁴Handbook to the Course of Study: Social Studies, op. cit., pp. 9, 10.

The importance of realizing the close relationship between man's life and his environment is indicated in both sets of objectives. This is elaborated in the 1959 edition where it states that geography should show the influence of environment on man, by a well-balanced study of the physical, biological, historical, economic and political development of the world's natural regions, avoiding the danger of dividing the subject into separate compartments.³⁵

There is considerable overlap in the remaining statements from the two sources. The current curriculum aims

to give a practical training in the 'grammar' of Geography (the physical basis of the atmosphere, hydrosphere and lithosphere), the ability to read maps, and to know the position of important places.³⁶

More geographical materials are enumerated in the earlier list. Pupils should learn to use "geographical books, apparatus, models, diagrams, maps, and tables and be able to extend their use to after school days."³⁷ An understanding of geographical terminology is also a necessity if a study of the subject is

to assist pupils to an interest in, and an intelligent reading in the newspapers, magazines, and in various school subjects, such as history and literature.³⁸

This objective is echoed in the 1959 guide where the aim is "to stimulate a desire to travel actually or in books, and to take an intelligent interest in nature and world events."³⁹

³⁵Geography Grades IX, X, XI. A Teaching Guide, Loc. cit.

³⁶Ibid.

³⁷Handbook to the Course of Studies: Social Studies, op. cit., p. 10.

³⁸Ibid., p. 9.

³⁹Geography Grades IX, X, XI. A Teaching Guide, op. cit.

One objective remains in the 1935 guide book which is not explicitly stated in the more recent one. Geography should

help to develop an understanding of the common interests, and of the independence of the peoples of the world, that will help to preserve peace and brotherhood among the nations.⁴⁰

Nevertheless, this understanding of the common interests of the peoples of the world should follow if the other objectives are realized. The maintenance of peace is also fostered by the growth of understanding. Thus this aim is not entirely neglected in the restatement of the objectives.

It is apparent from this study that there is nothing really new in the stated objectives found in the recent curriculum guide. It remains to be seen if any major changes have occurred in the content prescribed.

F. THE AIMS FOR TEACHING CIVICS

Unlike the history and geography curricula, the Civics programme underwent a decided change in the hands of the Civics Curriculum Committee.

The 1935 course had as its aim:

to train boys and girls to be good citizens, first of the home, then of the communities which spread out in widening circles until the whole world has been comprised.⁴¹

.

Civics in the School should have as its aim the creating of right attitudes and the acquiring of useful skills. . . rather than the imparting of information.⁴²

The 1960 Curriculum Committee introduced the new course outline by saying

⁴⁰Handbook to the Course of Studies: Social Studies, loc. cit.

⁴¹Ibid., p. 123.

⁴²Ibid., p. 124.

The overall objective of a course in Civics and Citizenship should be to prepare the student to make his greatest contribution to the smooth working of a Christian democratic society.⁴³

There are a few common details which become apparent as these general objectives are broken down. For example each mentions the imparting of a sense of Community citizenship with its attendant responsibilities. The development of an interest in, an understanding of, and a desire to help people in other lands also finds expression in both lists. This is not peculiar to Civics, however. The realization of the interdependence of nations was also a goal of the geography curriculum.

Two aims of the new curriculum are:

To teach him [the student] to be co-operative and to live in harmony with others;

and

To develop in him initiative, resourcefulness, and a desire to improve the quality of his work and the working conditions of himself and his colleagues.⁴⁴

These have some points of resemblance with one from the 1935 list:

By precept and example to wean the pupils away from the habit of thinking in terms of self, apart from the general good.⁴⁵

The first objective for the new programme is "to train him [the pupil] in the practice of Christian virtues." The 1935 course strove to encourage and strengthen all tendencies in the way of good habits that have been initiated in the earlier grades.

⁴³Civics and Citizenship. Grades I to VIII Bulletin No. 5-A 1960 (St. John's, Newfoundland: Department of Education) p. 1.

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵Handbook to the Course of Studies. Social Studies. op. cit. p. 120.

to make use of incidents of school life in training the pupils to judge between right and wrong.⁴⁶

One associates a Civics programme with the study of the government.

References to this phase of study found in the objectives are:

1935 - To bring into relief those strands which bind us to Newfoundland and the British Empire.

To explain the nature of Colonial, British, and World Government.

To bring out some contributions which the individual may make to these larger communities.⁴⁷

1960 - To provide him [the pupil] with a knowledge and practice in democratic procedures.

To help him see the relationships between various branches of government and to understand the means by which these branches function.

To develop in him an awareness and understanding of the various institutions and forces that influence society.⁴⁸

Other objectives listed for the 1935 programmes are:

To develop a school spirit to which an appeal can safely be made on all critical occasions.

To lead the pupils to think of "Loyalty" as something synonymous with service for others.⁴⁹

Vocational guidance also had a place in this programme through a study of the economic life of the community and a survey of the opportunities available in Newfoundland.

The concept of the home as the starting place for the practice of

⁴⁶Ibid.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 133.

⁴⁸Civics and Citizenship. Grades I to VIII, op. cit., p. 2.

⁴⁹Handbook to the Course of Studies. Social Studies. op. cit., p. 120.

good citizenship is emphasized in this outline. The home that is happy as long as each member makes his contribution to family life is then used to illustrate the relationship of each citizen to institutions outside the home.⁵⁰

Training in the use of leisure time is repeated as a specific objective for several grades indicating the importance with which it was regarded by the educators.

Many of the objectives listed by the Curriculum Committee in 1960 are not peculiar to the Civics programme and, in the opinion of the writer, they are more likely to be realized in the study of other subjects than in the forty-five minutes per week usually devoted to Civics. Included in this category are the following:

To train him to think critically that he may decide wisely.

To develop in him an interest in and love of beauty and truth.

To develop in him right attitudes towards success and failure, disappointment and realization.⁵¹

As part of the programme designed to train each pupil to be a good citizen, an attempt is made

To strengthen his belief in freedom of thought, of speech and of action, within the limits of Christian democracy.

To make him aware of his rights, privileges and responsibilities as a human being.

To strengthen his belief in the importance of will in self-control and self-direction.

⁵⁰Ibid., pp. 124, 125.

⁵¹Civics and Citizenship Grades I to VIII. op. cit., p. 1.

To help him become increasingly conscious of the dignity and worth of man.⁵²

In this age when there is an increasing tendency on the part of the population to get what they can for nothing, it is important "to develop in him a strong belief in the dignity of honest labour."⁵³ Allied with this is the aim,

to impress on him the importance of efficiency as a worker (and as a citizen) through safeguarding his own health and that of others.⁵⁴

The civics class provides an opportunity "to impress on him the importance of conservation of natural resources."⁵⁵ This is also within the realm of the geography class.

Training in manners is assigned to the civics programme as well. A knowledge and use of the "common courtesies which society demands", and the acquisition of "social poise and confidence in social settings"⁵⁶ are the anticipated outcomes.

It is the view of the writer that a very ambitious programme has been outlined for the new curriculum. Only a cursory glance at the aims is needed to realize the necessity for a close relationship between the civics class and the remainder of the school programme. It is not a type of programme that can be confined to one period a week with any hope of success.

⁵²Civics and Citizenship Grades I to VIII, op. cit., p. 1.

⁵³Ibid.

⁵⁴Ibid.

⁵⁵Ibid.

⁵⁶Ibid.

G. THE AIMS OF TEACHING ECONOMICS

A Teaching Guide for Economics was issued by the Department of Education in 1960. The lack of a previous statement for this subject eliminates the possibility of any comparison. Consequently the objectives set for the new course will be the only ones given.

According to the Teaching Guide,

The basic objective of Economics can probably be best summed up as the study of prices and the pricing system in all its aspects and with all its implications. This means a study of the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services, to discover the basic principles underlying economic activity, and an attempt to gain an understanding of the problems of modern economic life through description, analysis and explanation of these problems by rigidly applying these discovered principles to relevant data. For this analysis and understanding a knowledge of the basic concepts, principles and laws of Economics is essential. These concepts and principles are the tools, the "scientific apparatus" necessary for the analysis of the working of any economic system and constitute the core of Economics.⁵⁷

The inclusion of an Economics course in high school provides an opportunity for the many students who are not proceeding to university to receive an introduction to the economic life of the world in which they are to work.

The specific objectives of the course are as follows:

1. to develop an understanding and an appreciation of specialization and of the need for co-operation and exchange at every level, individual, regional, and international;
2. to provide rudimentary knowledge of the workings of the pricing system and its effect in determining the allocation of and rewards to the factors of production in the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services.

⁵⁷Economics Grade XI A Teaching Guide. Bulletin No. 9-A, (St. John's, Newfoundland: Department of Education) pp. 1, 2.

3. To provide knowledge of the more important institutions in economic systems.
4. To develop an appreciation of the ethical, governmental, and other aspects of economic activity.
5. To attempt a simple explanation of modern economic problems, e.g. business cycles, inflation.
6. To develop an appreciation of the importance of history and geography upon the economic activity of the states and the role of economic factors in historical development of a state.⁵⁸

H. THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

The Social Studies Grades I - IV. Following the pattern established in the preceding section on the objectives of the social studies curriculum, a comparison will now be made of the programmes which have been used since 1936.

As was stated in connection with the aims, the courses designed for the primary grades cannot be classified as either history or geography. They are general programmes intended to give the children an introduction to the world in which they live.

The programme outlined for grades one and two in 1936 was described as a study of the community. No textbook was prescribed; the lessons were to be "informal talks on simple subjects." It was suggested that they be illustrated by "pictures, stories told and dramatized, songs and games." Observation trips were also recommended. However, the teachers were cautioned that each lesson should be designed to inculcate some definite knowledge, skill or attitude. The Handbook to the Course of Studies⁵⁹

⁵⁸Economics Grade XI. A Teaching Guide. op. cit., p. 4.

⁵⁹Handbook to the Course of Studies, Social Studies, op. cit.

lists topics which would provide material for about one hundred of these informal discussions. Included are characteristic features of the city and the outport, directions, observations about the sky, animals, the seasons, weather, time, ways of travel, birds, farming, trees, and history stories. There are a number of items mentioned in this outline which are characteristic of the locale and indicate an attempt on the part of the curriculum designers to adapt the study to the child's environment. Among the topics listed for a discussion of the outport are the vegetable garden, and fishing stages and flakes. The dependence of the people on fishing and the sea is reflected in other ways also. Port and starboard, windward and leeward were directions to be learned. The sky was important for directing the man at sea and the children were to learn early the direction of the sun's movement and the position of the North Star and the Dipper. Among the weather phenomena to be discussed was fog. In the unit devoted to modes of travel, emphasis was to be placed on boats and distinctions drawn between various types. The history stories were to centre around national holidays, the Newfoundland Indians (Beothuck) and John Cabot.

The present curriculum was introduced in 1950. The Tiegs-Adams Social Studies Series⁶⁰ was first used in grades one and two but the whole curriculum was rearranged using the near to far approach. Thus the focal point for the grade one course was the family, and for grade two, the neighbourhood.

The first book, Stories About Linda and Lee, is divided into six

⁶⁰Vide. Appendix A. Nos, 30, 32, 33.

units: Work and Play at School, The Family, Fun with Family and Friends, Pets at School and at Home, Mr. Greene's Farm. In the "Overview" of the book it is stated,

Fundamental understandings about the home and the school in relation to the community are developed. The program also provides for the development of skills and attitudes necessary for successful, happy, and safe living at home and at school. Emphasis is given to understanding and evaluating a child's own problems.

Stories about Sally is the textbook for the second grade. The children explore the community through Sally's eyes. They see the firemen and policemen at work and they visit the library, the radio station, the bakery, the dairy. Various means of communication are introduced--radio, television, newspapers, telephone, the postal service. Sally takes two trips: one to the southern United States in the course of which she discovers different plants growing because of the southern climate and she also notices how the climate affects the activities of the people; the second trip is a journey across the country by car during which she visits a city, and a cattle ranch, the desert, an agricultural area, and the mountains, the ocean and a lake. By means of these trips, the pupils are introduced to other places and learn about the occupations of people living in different environments. As it is stated in the Teachers' Edition,

The purpose of Stories about Sally is to give second-grade children, by means of pictures and stories, some understanding of their part in the activities of their own communities and a view of the larger world in which they live. The book stresses the fact that workers in all occupations contribute to the general welfare of society, and that every person, no matter what his age, has a responsibility in carrying on this business of living together.⁶¹

⁶¹Teachers' Manual for Stories about Sally. (Boston: Ginn and Company 1960). Revised Edition. p. X.

These books are attractive with clear, colourful illustrations, clear print, and sturdy bindings. The stories are interesting, informative, and suited to the reading level of the children. Well-planned Teachers' Editions which contain many helpful aids and suggestions are also provided. Projects and activities designed to foster the development of social attitudes and skills as well as good work habits are proposed. The books provide the pupils with many opportunities to learn the characteristics of good citizenship and at the same time they are introduced to a number of social studies concepts such as the interdependence of the workers in a community, and the effect of environment on the lives of people.

In 1952 a new series of textbooks was added to the grade one and two programmes. Grade one uses Peter's Family by P. R. Hannah and G. A. Hoyt,⁶² while grade two uses Hello, David,⁶³ another book by the same authors.

The material in the books is excellent but both series are American publications and are illustrated with American flags, United States maps, American stamps, and the 'U. S. Mail' signs on letter boxes, mail trucks and railway cars. These are small things but perhaps they indicate a need for good Canadian materials. Although most of the content of these books is applicable to the Canadian scene, a series written especially for Canadian pupils could show more of the varied conditions that are peculiar to the northern dominion.

Although the curriculum compiled in 1935 established separate

⁶²Vide, Appendix A. No. 15

⁶³Ibid., No. 14.

courses in history and geography for grades three and four, a close correlation of history, geography and natural science was recommended. Thus they will be discussed in this section with the social studies programmes which have been used in these grades since 1950.

The history and geography courses outlined for use in these grades between 1935 and 1950 were not based on prescribed texts. The lessons were to consist mainly of informal conversations but considerable supplementary reading was recommended. Lists of some suitable books for each grade level were provided with the outline of the history course. The teacher was cautioned to begin always with the familiar and the known. The units of work for geography in grade three were to be selected from the local environment. The main objective of the history course was to arouse feelings of sympathy and gratitude to the heroes in bygone days. The pupils were to be encouraged to delve into the history of their own communities and then observe how such things as the lighting and heating of homes, and transportation on the island had changed since the days of their ancestors.

The grade four history was designed to create in the pupils a lasting interest in Newfoundland's past with enough information about Europe for them to understand the background of the voyages of exploration. The geography programme for this grade, however, branched out from the home scene to each of the six continents. The course was entitled World Geography, or Journey Geography. So that the pupils might realize the geographical relationship of the various continents to their own home, it was suggested that the study of each be approached as though the boys and girls were to make the journey. Maps would be used to locate the position

of the country to be visited, and a discussion would follow concerning the means of transportation available for reaching their destination and the time involved. Maps and globes were to be used extensively throughout the study. Upon 'reaching' their destination, the emphasis was to be given to the different environments and the modes of living they engendered.

The programmes introduced in 1950 for these two grades continued the near to far approach established in the two previous grades. Grade three in the 1950 - 1951 school year studied the town and the world; the theme for grade four was the world. The following year the study of the world was dropped from the grade three curriculum.

Before 1950, many of the textbooks used in the Newfoundland schools were British publications but in the years immediately following Confederation, the trend was to change to Canadian or American books. This trend is evident in this section of the social studies curriculum. Two text books were assigned for grade three for the year 1950 - 1951. These were Someday Soon by Hannah and Hoyt,⁶⁴ and Our World by E. M. Manuel.⁶⁵ The latter was dropped the following year. In September 1952, another text written by Eleanor Thomas, Your Town and Mine,⁶⁶ was added to the course. In grade four another book by Manuel, Visit to World Workers,⁶⁷ was used in 1950 - 1951, but the following year it was changed to Visits

⁶⁴Vide, Appendix A. No. 16.

⁶⁵Ibid., No. 21.

⁶⁶Ibid., No. 32.

⁶⁷Ibid., No. 22.

in Other Lands by Atwood and Thomas.⁶⁸ Both texts by Manuel were British.

The new books, like those for the primary grades, are bright and attractive with the reading vocabulary suited to the ability of grades three and four pupils. The purpose of these books is not only to provide factual information, but to foster understandings of society--the interdependence of individuals, of communities, of nations, and the influence of the environment of people's characters and ways of life. The new programmes also strive to develop a spirit of co-operation among the students, encourage leadership abilities, and a willingness to accept responsibility. These are closely connected with the stories which they read in their text books. To take Your Town and Mine⁶⁹ as an example, the seven units are entitled--Where We Live, Where We Get Our Food, Where We Get Our Clothes, Homes for Our Town, Working In Our Town, and What Our Town Does for Us. Much valuable information is presented in an interesting manner.

In the book Visits in Other Lands,⁷⁰ the material is presented in the form of stories about children in other lands. Although the stories are fictional, great care was taken to provide accurate geographical information, maps and illustrations.

⁶⁸Ibid., No. 34.

⁶⁹Ibid., No. 32.

⁷⁰Ibid., No. 34.

History. The most revealing aspect of the history curriculum since 1936, in the writer's opinion, is the changing emphasis on the topics to be studied. In 1936 the focus was on British and European history. The grade five course consisted of stories from World History. Included were tales of the Stone Age, Egypt, Ancient Greece, Rome, England and Newfoundland. Grade six concentrated on British History to the Middle Ages. The story was continued in grade seven from 1399 - 1688 while a parallel study was made of Newfoundland's history to 1688. These narratives were both picked up in grade eight following the course of history to the present time. Grades nine, ten, and eleven followed a sequence--Ancient and European History to the Crusades, European History from the Crusades to American Independence, and European and World History from the American Independence to the present.

There was a significant change in the curriculum in 1941 when the grade nine and ten courses on Ancient and European History were changed to further study of Britain. Building the British Empire⁷¹ was the text in both grades. Thus in these seven grades under discussion, five were studying British history and the other two each had a section on British history included. In 1943 the grade ten programme reverted to a study of pre-modern Europe.

As has already been indicated, a major revision of the curriculum was instituted in 1950, the year following Confederation. The first seven

⁷¹Ibid., No. 2.

years were definitely arranged on the near to far pattern in two cycles. The first, which has already been mentioned, consisted of the family, the school and neighbourhood, the town, and the world, used in grades one to four respectively. This created a background for a more detailed study of history. The next three grades considered the histories of Newfoundland, Canada, and Britain, in that order. This included an important innovation in the curriculum. For the first time Newfoundland students were to study the history of Canada. It had not taken long for the country's new political status to be felt in the schools. Grade eight students were to study Newfoundland's story once more while the grade nine course was devoted to the story of Britain. The grade ten and eleven programmes did not change; European and World histories were still the topics to be studied. Thus the grade five 'Stories in World History' was replaced by a study of Newfoundland. One British history course gave way to a study of Canada. The combined studies of Britain and Newfoundland in grades seven and eight were divided with one year devoted to each.

In 1952 the grade nine course in British history was replaced by a second year of Canadian history. However, the study of history was discontinued in grade six in 1957. In 1961 a study of Britain replaced the second year of Newfoundland history.

This latter change was the first of a series of changes in the history curriculum as a result of the work of the History Curriculum Committee which had been appointed in 1958. The report of this Committee was tabled in 1961. Unlike the revisions of 1936 and 1950, the new courses are being introduced gradually and they are still not all in effect.

Nevertheless, the end result will be as follows:⁷²

Grade V	Newfoundland
Grade VI	Canada before 1800
Grade VII	Canada and Newfoundland, 1800 - 1901
Grade VIII	Britain to 1901
Grade IX	English-speaking peoples (England, Canada, the United States) in the Twentieth Century.
Grade X	World History to 1500
Grade XI	World History from 1500

Except for grade five, this curriculum, at the time it was adopted by the Committee, was "basically the same as the one in Ontario, with each course put in a year earlier to provide it [sic] in one year less than in Ontario."⁷³ The biggest change that it makes in the Newfoundland curriculum is the grade nine course devoted to the twentieth century. "The prospects of this new course in history. . .are very exciting," states the Division of Curriculum in an article in the Newsletter. "Nothing like it has ever characterized our Newfoundland social studies curriculum."⁷⁴

Thus the history curriculum in Newfoundland has changed considerably in the fifteen years since Confederation.

One other matter for contention remains, however. The denominational

⁷²Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, April, 1963.

⁷³Personal records of G. Fizzard

⁷⁴Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, April, 1963

system of education has resulted in the authorization of two textbooks for grades ten and eleven history, one for the Protestant schools and the other for the Roman Catholic schools. Until recently two examination papers were set for each grade. In 1961 this practice was discontinued in grade eleven but there are still two different papers for grade ten. However, the Department of Education is considering this problem and in a recent Newsletter the following item appeared:

A revised outline of World History is at present under consideration and a single textbook being sought to replace the two texts now being used in Grades X and XI. The new material in World History will be a part of the Programme of studies for 1965 - 1966.⁷⁵

Geography. The change in the topics being studied in the geography classes of the Newfoundland schools has been less than was found in the history curriculum. The reason can be found in the nature of the subject. Living on an island, the people of Newfoundland were thoroughly familiar with the sea. Regarding it as their highway, they were interested in other lands bordering the sea and in the lands of other people who came to their shores. Thus the study of geography was world-wide in scope very early in its development.

There was considerable rearrangement of topics between 1936 and 1964. The Newfoundland and World geography course in grade five was changed to a full course in Newfoundland geography in 1950. When the study of geography was discontinued in grade five in 1957, the study of

⁷⁵Department of Education Newsletter, St. John's, April, 1964.

Newfoundland was advanced to grade six. North and South America and Africa were studied in grade six in 1936 but the curriculum revision following Confederation reduced this to a study of North America. In fact the text which has been used since then is Canada and Her Neighbours⁷⁶ in which eighty per cent of the material is devoted to Canada. Thus the island's new status as a Canadian province influenced this area of the curriculum as well. When the Newfoundland geography was advanced to grade six, the study of North America became the grade seven course. The same text book was retained.

Europe, Asia, and Australia had been the topics for grade seven and then for a short period these were replaced by the British Commonwealth. The study of Europe and Asia was moved to grade nine.

From 1936 to 1950 the grade eight course was World geography. In 1950 it was changed to Newfoundland geography which meant that there were then two courses being given on the geography of the new province. In 1958 a new course was created which comprised the study of some of the countries which had been dropped in the revision. It was called Southern Lands and included South America, Africa, and Australia as well as the other lands of the Southern Hemisphere.

Grade nine students studied the geography of Newfoundland until the content was changed to the British Empire in 1941. This was replaced by the study of Europe and Asia which has already been mentioned.

Grades ten and eleven have had courses in World geography ever

⁷⁶Vide., Appendix B. No. 14.

since 1936, although for a few years at the beginning of this period, the grade ten course emphasized the study of Britain. The grade eleven course now concentrates on selected regions rather than attempting to be all inclusive. By far the greatest emphasis, however, is placed on North America.

Civics. No textbooks were assigned for the Civics course although two have now been approved for use. An outline for a civics programme in grades four to ten appeared in the Handbook to the Course of Studies compiled in 1936. This remained in effect until a new bulletin entitled Civics and Citizenship was published in 1960.⁷⁷ The new course is designed for grades one to eight. Civics ceased to be offered as a separate course in grade ten at the end of the 1960 - 1961 school year, and the following year it was dropped from the grade nine curriculum.

The 1960 course outline for grades one to four includes some of the topics previously designated for grades four to six. However, the new programme is wider in scope. For example, the first item in the 1935 guide states:

The formation of habits tending to cleanliness in body and neatness in dress can be strengthened by daily inspections or parades just at the beginning of the morning's session; an inspection-parade such as that used in the army for precisely the same purpose.⁷⁸

⁷⁷Civics and Citizenship. Grades I to VIII. Bulletin No. 5-A, 1960. (St. John's, Newfoundland: Department of Education).

⁷⁸Handbook to the Course of Studies. Social Studies, op. cit., p. 121.

In contrast the 1960 Outline includes a unit on Health Habits.

- (a) Forming good habits of
 - (I) going to bed early
 - (II) eating good food
 - (III) observing food rules
 - (IV) correct posture
 - (V) caring for the eyes
 - (VI) brushing the teeth and teeth care
- (b) Learning the art of cleanliness
- (c) The values of wearing the proper clothing
- (d) The importance and use of a clean handkerchief.⁷⁹

Similarly the older curriculum declared that attention should be given to the formation of habits of politeness and courtesy by ensuring that the pupils stand upon the arrival and departure of school visitors.⁸⁰ The new outline also includes a unit on Good Manners and Courtesy but the items listed are:

- (a) Introductions
- (b) "Please" and "Thank you"
- (c) "Excuse Me"
- (d) Speaking Clearly
- (e) While visiting the sick
- (f) Proper behaviour in travelling on a bus.⁸¹

⁷⁹Civics and Citizenship, op. cit., p. 3.

⁸⁰Handbook to the Course of Studies. op. cit., p. 121.

⁸¹Civics and Citizenship. Grades I to VIII. loc. cit.

The promotion of habits of discipline and thoroughness by having classes assemble and dismiss in regular order and by insisting on having things kept in their proper place when not in use was another item on the 1935 programme. Care of school property, affiliation with the Junior Red Cross, and the Boy Scout and Girl Guide Associations where possible, the development of mind and body through school games, and the carrying out of Community-benefit projects completed the list.⁸² Nevertheless, it was made clear that this was not intended to be an exhaustive or rigid curriculum. Instead it provided some suggestions in the hope that the teacher would carry on, utilizing situations in the school as they arose to further the task of citizenship education.

In addition to those already listed, the new course contains units on Making Friends through co-operation, helpfulness, kindness, and thankfulness; Safety Rules; Aesthetic Appreciation by means of an attractive classroom, cleanliness in the park and on the playground, and the care of flowers, gardens, lawns, and forests; Patriotism; Friends and Helpers; Tolerance and Understanding of others.⁸³ A close similarity is noticed between these topics and the social studies courses for these grades.⁸⁴

A comparison of the second halves of the programmes reveals that they have many points in common. Provisions for education in the

⁸²Handbook to the Course of Study. Social Studies. op. cit., pp. 121 - 123.

⁸³Civics and Citizenship. Grades I to VIII. op. cit., pp. 3 - 5.

⁸⁴Cf. pp. 95 - 96.

community are listed for study in both, as are Welfare, Social, and Business Organizations. Training for the wise use of leisure time was considered important in both programmes. The 1960 outline suggests a brief history of the community be used as an introduction to the course. This is included in the history rather than the civics curriculum in the 1935 programme. A unit on the Health and Welfare of the Community contains a number of topics such as the water supply, fire department and lighting system that were suggested in the earlier curriculum. In addition the new course includes inspection of foods, licences to process meats and other foods, and to open restaurants and snack-bars, traffic laws, and building codes. A study of local government, the economic life of the community, the advantages of communal life and the contributions which the individual could make to the community were all within the scope of both curricula. The 1960 programme devotes a full unit to a consideration of improvements still needed in the community.

The change in political status of Newfoundland from a British colony to a Canadian province necessitated a change in the study of the organization of government which is included in the civics course. The 1936 course contained a unit entitled "Benefits We Receive Because of Our Citizenship" and this was followed by a study of the Newfoundland Government. A significant change was made in the 1954 - 1955 syllabus to include a study of the Federal Government in this unit. The revised programme has a unit on the "Meaning of Province" which included the relation of one province to the other provinces and to the central government. The items listed under the 'Benefits of Citizenship' in the

earlier curriculum are found in the new outline under the heading, "Duties and Responsibilities of Provincial Government Departments."

The organization and function of the Provincial Government are examined in detail, but there is no similar breakdown stipulated for the Federal Government. The Department of Education issued a bulletin in 1959 entitled Our Provincial Government⁸⁵ which has been distributed as an aid to teachers and students. The style in which it is written makes it easy reading for the pupils.

The "Nature of World Government" is listed in both courses of study and an important addition was made to this section in 1954 with the inclusion of the United Nations and its specialized agencies.

Vocational guidance had a significant place in the earlier curriculum which is not incorporated in the new one. The explanation no doubt lies in the fact that civics as a separate course now ends with grade eight. The need for vocational guidance is greatest in the last two years of high school and where provision is made for this, it is outside the scope of the social studies courses.

Economics. The economic life of the community affects all citizens in some way. Thus a course in the basic principles of economics designed especially for those who are terminating their formal education is provided in grade eleven.

⁸⁵Our Provincial Government. Bulletin No. 5 - 1. (St. John's, Newfoundland: Department of Education, 1959).

The textbooks which were used in 1940 continued to be used until 1960. Although the text has been changed recently there appears to be little change in the list of topics assigned for study. The basic features of the economic systems of capitalism, fascism, socialism, and communism, industrial enterprise, production, the price system, marketing and transportation, international trade, labour organizations and labour problems, exchange, distribution, and government expenditure and revenue are all topics discussed in both the new and old texts. Of more practical use to the majority of students would be the sections on credit and banking, budgeting and spending, saving and investing, and the advantages and disadvantages of home ownership all of which are included in the course of study.

The new text, Our Economic Life by Steinberg,⁸⁶ was written especially for Canadian high school students but Heaton's A History of Trade and Commerce,⁸⁷ one of the earlier texts, was also written for Canadian students and had a special section devoted to the Canadian scene. Thus no change was made in the course content following Confederation.

I. SUMMARY

By the beginning of the twentieth century, the Council of Higher Education had established the system of common examinations which led in

⁸⁶Vide., Appendix C. No. 3.

⁸⁷Ibid., No. 1.

turn to the compiling of a standard curriculum for the grades in which the public exams were written. The first major revision came in 1936 and was followed by another in 1950. Further change is underway at the present time.

The study of Britain and Newfoundland occupied a large proportion of the time devoted to history until 1950. After this a more even distribution was made of British, Canadian, Newfoundland and World history. It was at this time that the first course in Canadian history was offered in the Newfoundland schools.

The revision of the geography course was generally one of redistributing topics and changing textbooks. However, it is significant that a more detailed study of Canadian geography was introduced in 1951.

The civics programme was outlined in greater detail in 1959 with the publication of a bulletin on Civics and Citizenship⁸⁸ by the Department of Education. The topics to be studied remained about the same with the exception of the study of the government organization. This section was revised somewhat after Confederation to include reference to the federal system of government.

The Economics course remained the same until 1960 when the innovation was a new text rather than a change in topical content.

A study of the aims of education and the social studies courses has revealed very few basic changes since 1936. The revision was mainly

⁸⁸op. cit.

one of rearrangement and restatement with clarification of the same ideas. The most extensive changes were found in the aims for the civics programme.

The Department of Education has undertaken recently to prepare a number of teaching guides which contain much valuable material for teachers. The type of information in these bulletins varies but it may include course outlines, a statement of aims, supplementary information, suggested references, methods for presentation and lists of audio-visual aids available through the Department.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A. SUMMARY

The purpose of this study, as stated in Chapter I, was to trace the historical development of the social studies curriculum in Newfoundland with an attempt to determine what effect Newfoundland's entry into Confederation had on the curriculum.

The political and social history of the island has been traced in order to provide a background for a consideration of the developments in education. The hostility of the fishing admirals toward settlers on the island was largely responsible for the scattered nature of the population. This plus the fact that the British government refused to recognize Newfoundland as a colony until 1824 accounted in part for the slow beginnings of education on the island. Even when the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and the Newfoundland School Society sent out missionaries and teachers to try to break down the barrier of illiteracy, they could not supply enough personnel to reach all the isolated settlements. Other local groups such as the Benevolent Irish Society and the St. John's Charity School Society also established schools. These societies were concerned with providing education for the poor people in Newfoundland and the first government grant for education was given to these organizations. The children of the middle and upper socio-economic classes attended private schools, or had private tutors, or were sent abroad to schools in England or the United States.

The various educational societies became associated with particular religious denominations. Gradually the denominations requested more and more control over the schools. An attempt by the government to establish a non-denominational academy was a failure so finally the government grant was divided among the three major denominations in proportion to their adherents in the population. The system which emerged was organized by the churches with government support and control. The development of the curriculum, the assigning of textbooks, the setting and marking of public examinations, and the training of teachers gradually became cooperative efforts. After the denominational system was well established, provision was made in 1903 for the organization of amalgamated schools in areas where the school population was too small to warrant the existence of separate schools.

Newfoundland's financial position before the Second World War was very unstable. The alternating periods of depression and relative prosperity were reflected in the educational system, especially in teacher's salaries. The war stimulated a period of economic prosperity which, together with the rigid economy measures enforced by the Commission of Government after 1933, placed Newfoundland in a solvent position on the eve of Confederation in 1949.

Since the island became the tenth province of Canada, its history has been a story of increasing prosperity. The federal system of social welfare payments such as Family Allowances, Old Age Pensions, and Unemployment Insurance, suddenly brought hitherto unknown benefits to thousands of Newfoundlanders. The costs of defence, lighthouses, harbour

development programmes, postal services and railways were assumed by the federal government, thus freeing provincial funds for other projects. The construction of the Trans-Canada Highway, which was a joint federal-provincial undertaking, ended the isolation of hundreds of settlements which had been accessible only by boat. Federal assistance enabled new industries to be established which brought more money to the province and created more jobs.

The new government under the leadership of the Honourable J. R. Smallwood believed that education held the key to Newfoundland's future. Educated people were needed to plan for the development and wise use of Newfoundland's resources and to provide leadership in many fields. Consequently the percentage of the provincial budget which was devoted to education rose steadily after 1949.

The school population increased rapidly as well. This was partly the result of a natural population increase and partly due to the incentive to stay in school provided by the issuance of Family Allowances if the children had satisfactory school attendance. New schools were needed to alleviate the overcrowding that resulted. At the same time there was a widespread recognition of the need for providing better educational facilities for all students in the island. The outcome was the launching of a system of centralized high schools. This was facilitated by the new roads which linked many small communities. The educational authorities hoped that the centralized schools would attract more highly trained teachers by offering better equipment and more opportunity for specialization than was possible in the smaller schools.

Memorial College became a degree-conferring university in 1949. This provided an opportunity for many teachers who could not afford to go to the mainland to complete degrees in their own province. The rising salaries and increasing government grants made it possible for many to raise their professional standing.

The efforts to improve the educational system included a revision of the curriculum. A Sub-Committee on Curriculum was appointed by the Advisory Education Committee to formulate a new statement of the aims for public education in Newfoundland. A number of three-member committees were then organized to identify the objectives for each subject area and then they were to examine the curriculum for their particular subject and make suggestions for any revisions they thought were necessary. The suggestions made by these committees are gradually being implemented in the school programme.

There have been three major curriculum revisions in Newfoundland since 1930. A comparison of the resulting programmes is found in Chapter V of this study.

Two statements of aims for education in general have been issued; one was published in 1935, and the second in 1959. There was very little change in the actual objectives. The most obvious difference was the emphasis in the second publication on the religious foundation of the educational system. Religion was scarcely mentioned in the earlier statement. Other additions to the later bulletin were emphasis on mental health and emotional maturity, critical thinking, high standards of work, and respect for the work of others.

Social Studies as an integrated course was prescribed for grades one and two in 1936. Beginning in grade three separate courses in history, geography, and civics were given. A general revision of the social studies curriculum in 1950 resulted in the provision of an integrated course for grades one to four. However, the aims enumerated for the teaching of social studies remained essentially the same.

The aims for the teaching of history and geography were rewritten also but the conclusion reached by the writer was similar to that above; the new phraseology did not change the meaning.

The differences in the civics programmes are more readily apparent. Many broad aims are set forth for the new curriculum such as are listed for education in general. In the writer's opinion it would be a rare and ambitious civics programme that would fulfil these aims. Some of the more specific aims clearly overlap with those of the other social studies courses. This would lead one to conclude that there should be a very close liaison between the civics classes and the remainder of the school programme.

The lack of a statement of aims for the teaching of economics before 1960 made any comparison in this subject area impossible.

The new course in social studies for grades one to four which was introduced in 1950 provided much broader learning experiences for the pupils than had been suggested in the previous syllabus. The earlier programme had consisted of informal conversations on topics that were particularly of local interest. The new one, based on the well-planned Tiegs and Adams Series, left plenty of scope for the skilful teacher

while the Teacher's Manuals provided many aids which would be valuable to the less resourceful teacher.

The most obvious change in the history curriculum is the emphasis on the topics to be studied. In 1936 British and European history were featured. In 1941 five of the grades from five to eleven were studying British history and the other two each had a section on British history included in their programmes. Included in the revision of 1950 was the first course in Canadian history to be given in the Newfoundland schools. A number of course changes were made during the 1950's and a full new programme is now being introduced. This will give equal emphasis to the study of Newfoundland and Canada with slightly less for Britain. The last two years are devoted to a survey of world history from ancient times to the present.

Changes in the geography course primarily involved a reorganization and redistribution of the topics to be studied. However, the geography of Canada received more attention after 1950.

The 1936 programme of studies outlined a course in civics for grades four to ten. This was changed in 1960 to grades one to eight. This change is, no doubt, the main reason that vocational guidance was dropped from the civics curriculum. The topics to be covered are basically the same in the two courses. The 1960 outline provides more detail than the earlier one. After 1950 provision was made in the programme for the study of the Canadian system of government but more emphasis appears to be put on the provincial rather than the federal government.

No change is apparent in the topical outline for the economics course. A new textbook which was written especially for Canadian students was introduced in 1960 but the older textbook also contained a section written especially for Canadians.

B. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The only changes in the social studies curriculum that can be identified as being a direct result of Confederation are the increased emphasis on Canadian history and geography and the study of the Canadian system of government.

That there has been considerable activity in the fifteen years since Confederation in an effort to develop a well-rounded curriculum for the students in Newfoundland is evident from this study. However, the best possible curriculum cannot by itself ensure the fulfilment of the desired outcomes. Newfoundland's increased prosperity since Confederation has been responsible for the construction of new centralized high schools and the provision of new equipment such as audio-visual aids. How extensively and how effectively this equipment is being used could be the basis for another study.

No attempt has been made in this study to examine the implementation of the curriculum in the classroom. With the increased emphasis on teacher training, changes in methodology should be evident. The writer feels that a study of the methods being used in the classroom and an attempt to compare the actual outcomes with the stated objectives would be profitable.

It is difficult to effect much change in methodology as long as external examinations "freeze" the curriculum. A comparison of the external examinations, the expectations of the markers, and the objectives outlined for the course would make another worthwhile study.

The emphasis in this thesis has been on the curriculum as subject-matter prescribed by the Department of Education. It must be emphasized, however, that this is merely one segment of the education which the schools are entrusted to impart. All teachers in Newfoundland and particularly those who are concerned with the social studies would do well to consider the words of the Minister of Education:

In Newfoundland largely because of our history, there has been a tendency to conceive of education in the narrow sense of bookish learning and to fail to realize that such learning, though very important and in fact essential, is not the whole of education. Whatever helps a human being to fulfil himself to the measure of his capacity is education, and even this is not the whole story because no man is an island. One's fulfilling of one's self must, of necessity, be related to others, must have a purpose which goes beyond the self, and which makes a contribution to society.¹

¹Frecker, G. A., "New Year Thoughts on Education", Department of Education Newsletter, 14 (January, 1963).

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APPENDIX A

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